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The Gist of It

THIS IS the season for throwing the windows wide open, shufflling chairs and tables, probing under the piano, stirring things up generally. Spring housecleaning, in a word. Should social workers be too proud to look behind the office desk? Should any of us?

TAKE that overstuffed arm-chair in the corner where case-workers settle themselves comfortably and talk about technique. Dr. Cabot thwacks it vigorously, and a cloud of dust rewards him. Is family welfare to be built on a lie—well, at least on disingenuous dealing with the family in question? (p. 67). Dr. Cabot, of course, is professor of social ethics and of medicine in Harvard University, author of What Men Live By, and in general a person whom it is presumptuous to introduce to a Survey audience.

WISCONSIN—like so many other commonwealths—began to clean out a cupboard and found that the whole house needed to be set in order. Hardy Steeholm, who sketches the story, is editor of the Wisconsin Magazine (p. 69).

AGITATION and orderliness don't often go together. Can the many factions of the Negro race straighten themselves out and arrange their aims and methods into a convincing pattern? Alain Locke offers hopeful testimony (p. 71). A Harvard Ph. D., and former Rhodes scholar, he is now professor of social philosophy at Howard University.

HARDLY has Dr. Cabot finished with the technician when Mr. Lindeman comes along to ask, not whether he is truthful, but whether he is really human (p. 83). These papers have been recast in the editorial office from the amplified text of an address at the New York State Conference of Charities and Corrections.

SOMETIMES it's the house of a neighbor that contaminates the street. Dr. Mary B. Ritter, a leader in California efforts for social hygiene, tells (p. 95) how San Diego is menaced by a vicious neighbor for whom Americans are largely responsible.

THE UNPRETENTIOUS jottings from a Berlin note-book come (p. 69) from Mrs. Stern, who left the staff of The Survey last year to spend several months in Germany with her husband, Boris Stern, an American research student.

DR. S. JOSEPHINE BAKER, known internationally for her organization and administration of child hygiene under the Board of Health of New York City, with which she was connected for more than twenty years, is now consulting director of the Children's Bureau (p. 89).

BOSTON is rich in builders of mental health. Dr. Thom (p. 93) has already written for The Survey on the work of his Habit Clinics for children (March 15, 1923).

MR. MATTHEWS, of course, is director of the family welfare department of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor (p. 96).

"NUTRITION, see William James." An odd entry, that, in a reading list. But Dr. William R. P. Emerson, president of the Nutrition Clinics for Delicate Children, in Boston, speaks with an authority that is nationally recognized (p. 103).

IN ITS ISSUE for January 15, The Survey, rejoicing editorially in the striking decline in blindness resulting from ophthalmia neonatorum, declared (p. 379) "Massachusetts has not recorded an instance of the infection for more than five years." Of course this statement should have read "instance of the infection *which has resulted in blindness. . . .*"

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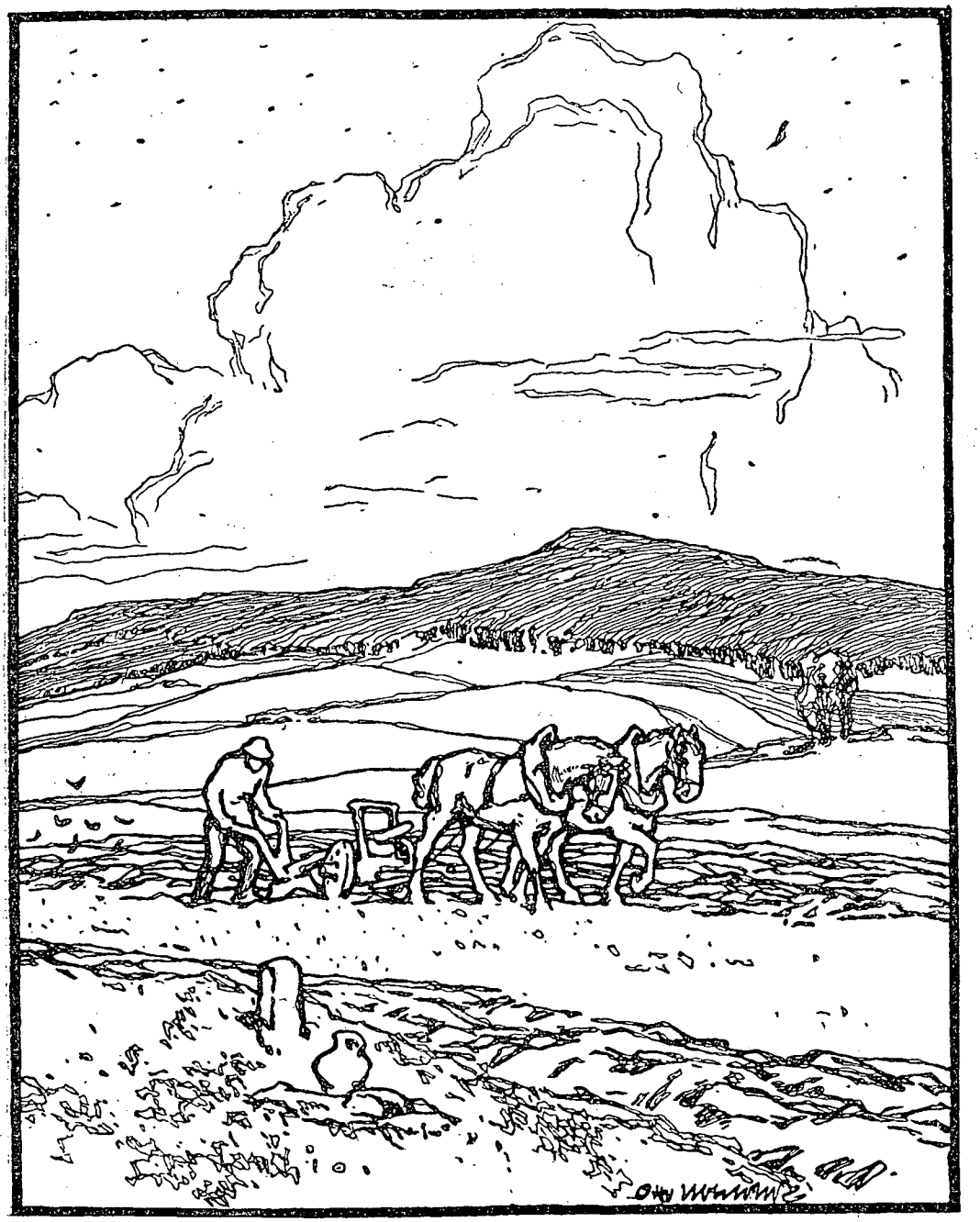

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THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

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Veracity in Social Work

By Richard C. Cabot, M.D.

SHOULD a social worker always tell the truth to clients, to other agencies and to the general public, the truth, that is, so far as he knows it? Most social workers, I think, would have no hesitation in answering this question in the affirmative. But when one comes to bring up instances presenting real difficulty, the matter is not so clear. In the first place, most people approve of deceiving criminals and those under reasonable suspicion of crime. This is the field of criminal detective work and many societies doing work for the prevention of cruelty to children consider themselves and their agents as quite definitely arms of the law and so carry out the ordinary subterfuges and deceptions of a detective on the grounds that they are helping to bring the criminal to justice. Under these conditions, one might truly say that the criminal or suspected criminal is not our client, is not another social agency nor a member of the general public. He is an individual at war with society and we are accustomed to the practice of treating such people by warlike methods in return. War of course involves strategy and the use of spies. The criminal, we say, is the enemy of society. Therefore we treat him as an enemy and carry out methods without which war cannot be carried on. In this practice I take it most social workers acquiesce, though I think there is much to be said for the view that even criminals do not deserve such treatment from society. But this point I should like to reserve for fuller discussion later on.

ASIDE from the deception of criminals and those reasonably suspected of crime, are there any others whom we are justified in deceiving? In The Family for November 1922, a case-worker asked and answered the question, "If a client definitely refuses to permit certain individuals to be interviewed" (in the course of social investigation) "has the worker the right to see them?" I understand from a later paragraph of this same article that the author approved not only of going against the client's wishes under certain conditions, but of doing so *without his knowledge;* that is, without warning him that we are about to do so and contrary to his known wish. She goes on,

> There seem to me three possible situations in which the social worker would be justified in going ahead in spite of refusal on the part of his client:
>
> 1. In the cases of suspected mental trouble where the proof, as the worker sees it, really must come from these other sources. An attempt, of course, should first be made to gain the consent, and, except in exceptional circumstances, that consent could be secured. In exceptional circumstances it would sometimes not be well to annoy the patient by trying to insist upon his consent.
>
> 2. In cases of illegitimacy, the unmarried mother almost always refuses to have her family know of her condition, if they are a respectable family who will help her out of her trouble. The motive in this case is not only the client's desire to protect herself but her desire to shield her dear ones from pain and disgrace. Years of experience have proved that the love of parents and family makes it possible for them to bear such disappointments as come with a true knowledge of what has happened, and their helpfulness is so great in relieving the distress of the client that the distracted unmarried mother's refusal to have her family seen cannot be heeded—not to mention the definitive rights of her near kindred, which supersede those of any outside agency.
>
> 3. Where the agency has good grounds for suspecting immoral conditions in the home which would lead to the neglect of children, morally and physically. For the protection of these children, who are unable to protect themselves, a worker would be justified in going against the wishes of his client.
>
> If your client withholds information from you and you secure it from another source, would you have a right to go ahead without his consent —that is, would his lying justify you in being deceitful with him? Since our agency stands for certain moral principles, it would not be justified in meeting deception with deception, but rather, by example, should help the client to have higher standards. Even where the consent to see certain individuals has been refused and the agent feels the situation warrants his going against the wishes of his client, he should always go back to the client and explain what he has done. This is better than for the worker to say at once that he will go anyway, when consent has been refused. He could not at that time justify by results the wisdom of his action or the wisdom of his client's refusal, and it would make the society appear so dictatorial that the client would

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always feel that his helplessness made it possible for the society to go against all his wishes. Consequently, whenever he feared opposition he would not confide in them, but would refuse information. On the other hand, if a client refuses to have an individual seen and the worker sees that individual, if the results are good, the client is always reconciled to what has been done. If the results are bad, the worker can frankly admit that the client was right and he was wrong. I think that almost invariably such a frank avowal on the part of the worker secures not only forgiveness on the part of the client but a certain sympathy as well.

Some months ago I reprinted this and some other extracts from the article; also a letter from Frederic Almy appearing in The Family for December 1922, page 208, taking issue with her on all three of these points. These quotations presenting the case for and against certain deceptions in social work were sent to a number of social workers in various cities of this country, including Chicago, New York, Buffalo, San Francisco, Boston, Baltimore, St. Louis and Philadelphia. I received 70 replies; 40 were opposed to all deception; 20 favored it under some one or more of the conditions described by the case-worker; 10 left me in doubt as to what they thought.

I feel sure that some reader will question my assumption that in the three cases mentioned we are deceiving the client. It is perfectly clear that when we have had no understanding at all with the client as to whether we will follow up certain clues, but have merely listened in silence to the expression of his distinct wish that we should not follow them up, he *may* understand from our expression that we are going to follow them up, nevertheless, and he may never be deceived at all when we proceed to do so. In most of these cases, however, I think silence is taken by the client to mean consent to abide by his wishes. The acid test, I think, is this: Have we any objection at all to telling the client that we are going to follow up these clues, in spite of his expressed dissent? If we are perfectly sure we have no such objection, then we can truthfully say that we are sure that he already understands us. In most cases, however, I think silence would be taken by the client to mean an assent to his wishes. At all events, we have, so far as I see, no right to leave the matter uncertain. We should make sure that he knows our intentions by telling him exactly what they are. After that, he can't say that we have deceived him. Failing that, he may rightfully say—he quite often does say—that we have tricked him and betrayed his confidence. Let us now consider the instances given.

I VERY emphatically disagree with the idea that we have any right to deceive patients with actual or suspected mental trouble. The field covered by the latter term—"suspected mental trouble"—is very wide. Indeed, I suppose there are very few of us who have not at some time been in it. If all *such* persons may be rightfully deceived, there would be almost no limit to the practice. But even in *actual* mental disease, I have seen only harm and no good come from deception. Years ago a psychiatrist of immense experience, long the head of a famous hospital for mental disease, told me that two-thirds of all the trouble that he had had in dealing with his patients was due to the lies that had been told them by their friends or relatives in order to induce them to come to the hospital at all. Having been tricked by their nearest and dearest, they had no good reason to trust the physicians—comparative strangers—who, as a basis for any treatment, must seek to win their confidence. In my experience (and I think in that of all who have had any considerable dealings with the insane) it seems clear that the insane deserve the truth as much as anybody else. I am not speaking, of course, of acutely excited, delirous or somnolent patients who attend to nothing that we say.

IN the case of the unmarried mother, I agree with the majority of the social workers with whom I have talked over this question, that nothing can be accomplished except on the basis of entire confidence between client and social worker and that such confidence is seriously marred—if not destroyed—by a deception inflicted near the beginning of the relationship. In the vast majority of cases, I think the unmarried mother can be persuaded, can be carried along with us in the policy of informing her family. Where this is impossible, we may think it best to inform them, nevertheless, after giving the client fair warning of our intention to do so. But under no conditions, as I see it, have we any right to deceive the client first and then tell him that we have done so, as the article in question advises. How is the client to know when we may again see fit to play him such a trick and to tell him of it afterwards?

AS regards the case-worker's third example, we are, I take it—in the field of a suspected violation of law. Here the question of deception resolves itself first into the problem already referred to. Should the state use warlike methods (including deception) in dealing with persons who have declared war upon the state by breaking its laws? One of the wisest social workers that I know—Jane Addams—believes that we should catch just as many criminals as we do now even if we gave up altogether the use of detectives and of the deceptions which all detective work may involve. C. C. Carstens—formerly head of the Boston Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children—has also said that in his experience one detects just as many criminal acts in relation to children without the use of detectives as with them and that the information obtained through detectives is usually costly and unimportant, when obtained.

But even if one grants that it may be best for the officers of the law to use the methods of the spy, this by no means proves that it is good policy for the workers of a social agency to use these methods. In some instances I know that the agents of societies for the prevention of cruelty to children have given up doing any such detective work and turned this all over to the police, preferring to be on the side of their clients and not in a hostile relation to them. Certainly it is difficult to maintain the friendly relationships, which are the basis of all successful social work—and yet pursue, by the methods of the criminal detective, the same persons who at another moment we are striving to befriend.

ANOTHER deception (once frequently practiced by social agencies but now becoming less common) is mentioned in an earlier paragraph of the article just referred to. Here the author ranges herself very definitely upon the side of those who do not believe in deceiving our clients.

The original sin of deception very often rests with the individual referring a family, who (*Continued on page* 113)

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Berlin

WE were eating dinner in a beautiful Berlin restaurant. For the first time since I came to Germany, the heavy, desolate feeling which had weighed me down had left me. The music was beautiful. The people looked so interesting. The atmosphere was charming. Suddenly I looked out of the large, plate glass window and there with her face pressed against the glass was an old woman watching us. Her eyes were fastened upon the food on our plates. Her jaws worked with each bite I took. I could eat no more.

. . . . . .

"NO," I spoke to myself firmly, "not another million will I give away. I have just enough for car fare now." There are so many beggars in Berlin—mostly old women they are too. They do not solicit alms. They just stand and wait. I walked a few feet further and there under a tree stood another shabby old woman. I walked past her quickly, but somehow I had to turn back. I thrust a million mark note into her unwilling hand—and then too late did I realize my mistake. She flung the money back at me and her eyes were filled with tears. "No, my fine lady," she said, "perhaps in another month I too shall be begging, but not yet, not yet."

. . . . . .

A FRIEND of mine, a veteran of the American army, was working in a quiet library with two Germans, also war veterans, when suddenly the stillness was broken by a familiar rumbling sound. The three laid down their pens and looked at each other aghast. One voiced what was in all their minds—"machine guns." They rushed to the window and this is what they saw: a small boy was rolling a large marble along the cement court and every time the marble hit the wall, it made a noise like a machine gun. Both Germans were completely unnerved by the incident and could do no more work that day.

. . . . . .

I WAS VISITING an American friend who lives with a German physician's family. Suddenly we heard a woman's weeping and then a child sobbing. "Something dreadful must have happened. I must find out what is the matter," and my friend went into the next room. A few moments later she rushed back into her own room, unceremoniously pushed me off a trunk on which I sat, threw everything out until she finally found what she wanted—a wide, old-fashioned serge skirt—and disappeared again into the next room. Meanwhile the weeping had subsided. She returned a few minutes later, breathing a sigh of relief.

"Another tragedy averted," she explained. It seems that Bubi, the eight-year-old son of the house, while climbing a fence, had torn, beyond repair, his only already well worn pair of pants. "But really," I exclaimed in amazement, "wasn't it ridiculous to make such a fuss over such a trifle?"

"Do you realize," spoke up my friend, "that if I had not come to the rescue with my old skirt Bubi's mother would have had to beg or steal in order to get him another pair of pants? Can you realize that she herself has not a scrap of material of any kind from which to improvise a pair of pants? Can you realize that her own wardrobe and her husband's wardrobe are reduced to a minimum and that all the money the doctor earns is not sufficient to buy enough food to feed his family properly—not to speak of buying clothes? Only this morning, Bubi's mother complained bitterly about his appetite." I had nothing more to say.

. . . . . .

"LET ME TELL YOU why I was cross this evening." Mrs. S. was the speaker. "First of all I have been skimping and scraping all week to collect enough marks so that we could have some meat today. We have had no meat for two weeks. I walked about three miles to a butcher who always sells his wares a little cheaper than most. Then when I got there, all the marks I had could buy only a little less than half a pound of meat.

"I have an old mother for whom my brother and I provide. One week I supply her with food, the next week my brother, and so we take turns. I stopped in at my mother's on my way home from the butcher and found her ill in bed, no fuel for fire, and not a bite of food in the house. I made a fire with some wood which some of her neighbors were kind enough to give me and I hacked off a slice of my meat and stewed it for her, all the time thinking what a wretch my brother was.

"Then I tidied up the room a bit and rushed over to my brother's house which was another hour's walk (no German housewife can afford to ride in the street car or subway). He has been out of work all week. There was no food in his house and only this morning, while he was looking about for work, his wife had gone to some neighboring field to pick up any potatoes that the farmer may have overlooked in his ploughing. While she was working over the field with several other women, a group of soldiers on horses rushed in, trampled on them and arrested them. It seems that they had no right to be in the field until the farmer who owned it declared it open to the public. The women were taken to the police station and with some difficulty persuaded the police that they had honestly thought the field was already open. They were allowed to go to their homes, but of course, without potatoes. My sister-in-law is not very well. She was frightened out of her wits by the whole procedure and was in bed as a result of the shock. I sliced off another piece of meat and left it with them. Then I ran home all the way crying at our own misery, at my mother's misery, at my brother's misery, at the misery of all Germany."

MALCKA R. STERN

Wisconsin Wakes

THE appointment by Governor Blaine of Dr. W. F. Lorenz to head the state board of control in Wisconsin is greeted with satisfaction by those who are interested in curative and preventive social effort.

For many years Dr. Lorenz has been nationally known as an authority on mental diseases, and as in hearty sympathy with sound social policies. As director of Mendota Psychiatric Institute his work has of recent years been brought clearly before the people. He has the confidence of social workers throughout the state, and there is no doubt that his training and leadership highly qualify him for his present post. The appointment was preceded by state-wide discussion covering many months led by the Wisconsin Conference of Social Work. It was made clear that something must be done to remedy a situation that was rapidly be-

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coming dangerous, and pressure was finally brought to bear to compel action.

It is safe to say that up to within the past few months, the purposes and powers of the state board of control were hazily outlined in the minds of well informed people in Wisconsin, and to the average person the name meant practically nothing. The board was organized in 1871, reorganized in 1891, and again in 1921. The last reorganization was made with a view to coordinating the institutions, with emphasis on business administration. While the lawmakers were thus lopping away at the top-branches of social maladjustment, they were forgetting the very causes creating these institutions. Crime, poverty, immorality, delinquency, neglected children, illegitimacy, and all the other categories, each calling for attention at its source, were forgotten in the anxiety to introduce economy and efficiency into the institutions created to care for their products. While members of the board were busy with book-keeping systems and economy plans, dickering about the purchase of bedding and food supplies, worrying about the little details of administration and supervision, the broad problems of prevention were thrust aside.

It would not be fair to charge that the state board has accomplished nothing. It has done effective work in supervising the physical aspects of county institutions and improving their sanitary conditions. County poorhouses and county jails have been benefited, although here there is still room for vast improvements. A mental survey has brought to light many possible ways of reducing mental defectives in the state. The present sterilization laws were the outgrowth of a study of hereditary feeble-mindedness. A children's bureau with unlimited possibilities was established.

The board has never worked out, however, a program which would include preventive as well as curative effort. In 1921 the state of Wisconsin, according to Dr. Gillin, spent $12,275,467.38 for the support of dependents and the catching and care of delinquents, while the largest sum ever appropriated by a legislature to prevent individuals from becoming state charges was $160,956.00.

Yet it was specific mistakes that finally aroused popular indignation. The Wisconsin Conference of Social Work, as well as other groups and individuals, had tried to cooperate with the board and to confer with it upon matters vital to the successful execution of social work in Wisconsin. These overtures on the part of social work groups, civic bodies and citizens of the state were either ignored or curtly refused. The dismissal of Dr. L. H. Prince from the superintendency of the state public school for dependent and neglected children (at Sparta, Wisconsin) aroused bitter resentment throughout the state. In 1922 the state board of control called Dr. Maybelle M. Park to act as director of the juvenile department. A trained social worker of unquestioned competence, she at once instituted sweeping reforms. This phase of the state's social work was rapidly becoming, in her capable hands, one of the best in the country. But she found herself hampered in every way by the board, not only through its dilatoriness in dealing with questions of policy submitted by her for its consideration, but also by its direct refusal to give her a hearing in conference. Finally, although Miss Park had been definitely retained on a salary of $3,000 and travelling expenses, the board reduced her salary to $160.00 per month on two days' notice, without explanation and in violation of the civil service law.

Since August the Children's Bureau has been without a director. In flat contradiction of the original conception of the children's division, the board now attempted to secure the appointment of four "field agents" for the juvenile department, three at $100 per month, and one at $125, the latter to be in charge of the work of the entire state. This meant nothing more or less than putting in charge of work requiring the services of trained social workers, untrained persons, totally unqualified—mere inspectors.

The result of all this was a general demand from all parts of the state, and particularly from Wisconsin women, that immediate action be taken to remedy the situation. So important had the question become that it threatened to take on serious political aspects.

There is no need, however, to charge Governor Blaine with mere political astuteness in making an appointment so generally approved as that of Dr. Lorenz. Matters fortunately shaped themselves so that it was possible for him to take the action that he did. He requested the resignation of R. C. Sharp, secretary of the board, on a general charge of official misconduct. On Mr. Sharp's immediate compliance with the request, no specific charges were preferred. The resignation of Mrs. Elizabeth Kading, president of the board, on grounds of ill-health, quickly followed —a resignation which did not cause any surprise after the dismissal of Mr. Sharp. The governor followed up his excellent appointment with another, in naming Mrs. Margaret Hutton Abels to be the woman member of the board. Mrs. Abels has had a wide experience in educational work, and is the author of several texts on economics.

From the controversy has come a fully aroused public consciousness of the tremendous force for good or evil that has been entrusted to the state board of control and of the absolute necessity of the closest participation of citizens in all matters with which the board is in any way concerned.

The state conference of social work has not been slow to seize the opportunity for a fresh effort at coordinating the efforts of the many private agencies now interested in the problems of delinquency, poverty, and inadequacy of life, and has issued a call to social work and civic groups throughout the state to unite with the newly constituted state board in support of this program:

1. An adequate state-wide system of probation with a trained and experienced director.
2. Adequate work for the mentally diseased, including compulsory examination of children three or more years retarded and compulsory special class instruction in the public schools; state-wide supervision of all feeble-minded children needing such care; mental examinations of defective, delinquent and other abnormal types who come before the courts and the establishment of a mental efficiency board to assist juvenile courts.
3. An adequate program of vocational education in the state prison.
4. Adequate field work for the blind.
5. Establishment of a juvenile department with a broad range of activity.
6. Education of all state and local officials and citizens on the problem of social and economic incapables.

Wisconsin has moved forward. If they pull together, these forces should be able to carry through a comprehensive program of restoration and prevention.

HARDY STEEHOLM

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The Negro Speaks for Himself

NEGRO leadership and organizations, unfortunately, have not been an exception to the rule that groups under adverse social pressure, with imperative need for unity, seem always to exhibit, nevertheless, a superabundance of factionalism. They are thus unwilling collaborators with their oppressors. An effort to coordinate the organized agencies of race work is therefore a noteworthy symptom of progressive thought and action. Such an effort has been successfully made in an all-race conference of Negro organizations at Chicago out of which has come a representative national council to be known as the Negro Sanhedrin.

From all sides, the critical need with respect to the race question seems to be clarification of mind and coordination of effort. The almost interminable discussion of the problem and the legacy of generations of controversy have accumulated such a glut of panaceas, nostrums, and proposed solutions—the great majority of them based upon neither expert investigation nor comprehensive view—that it has become almost impossible to discern just what it is that the Negro needs and wants. As a result the mind of the general public has almost pardonably reacted from bewilderment to impatience, and from that in turn to protective apathy. With such a situation, the only constructive move possible is for the Negro to become articulate and positive on his own question and to restate his case. In the Sanhedrin movement, Professor Kelly Miller, best known of the moderate intellectuals, has attempted this task, with the assistance of five important civil rights bodies, The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, The Equal Rights League, The Race Congress, The Blood Brotherhood, The International Uplift League, and The Friends of Negro Freedom. The project, seemingly inaugurated at the proper moment, has had overwhelming success through the participation of 63 organizations in the first conference and the unanimous endorsement of the 300 delegates in attendance.

It has been decided to establish the Sanhedrin as a permanent organization to meet in full conference biennially, with a national executive council, a commission on public information, and special permanent commissions of experts on the more important phases of race interests. There has thus been created an agency that may speak for the Negro on his own interests, problems, and activities in a much more authoritative and unpartisan way than any that has hitherto existed. Diverse and even antagonistic schools of race thought and policy are represented, and their differences have been worked down in conference to certain fundamentals which may be regarded as the common contention of all groups concerned, with the express understanding that the movement should in no way compromise the independence or infringe upon the special activities of the constituent organizations.

Recommendations were made in each instance by persons representing the organized interests in each of the special fields involved, so that at least the principle of representative and expert findings has been established as a precedent. These efforts, continued through the permanent commissions, ought eventually to bring forth results that will rid us to a considerable extent of the dreaded amateur and the still more dangerous professional social quack. The published program may be regarded as representing what the Negro wants and wants unanimously at this stage of the race situation.

SEVEN of the problems considered fall primarily within the field of joint public responsibility and inter-racial cooperation. Here the necessity of insisting on the public welfare as the common goal and justification was stressed. "We are a group of ten million in the midst of ten times our own number. The welfare of one must not be sought at the expense of ten. While we can surrender no rights, inalienable or conferred, all of our policies must be patriotic and considerate of the whole equation of which we constitute but a factor." The following were recommended as the cardinal principles and the salient points of attack:

PUBLIC HEALTH: The imperative need of improving and safeguarding the physical stamina of the race, and of enlisting the full cooperation of Negro organizations in public health campaigns.

EDUCATION: The necessity for equal school facilities based upon equal per capita distribution of all public funds available for the maintenance of public school education; for a larger share of administrative participation by the Negro in the control of his education, public and private; and for all forms of higher education,—professional, technical, and liberal, to produce, in the public interest, intelligent leadership for the race.

LABOR: Protesting the exploitation of Negro labor in the conflict between capital and organized labor as unfair and detrimental, and declaring for the principle of the standard wage and the recognition of Negro workers in fields where Negro labor is organized; endorsing community assistance to Negro workers, especially recent migrants, in industrial centers; and recommending organized financial relief to the Negro farmer for the alleviation of direct and indirect peonage and the increasing of farm productivity.

POLITICS: Maintaining the necessity of political activity as necessary to race welfare, and the protection of the right of franchise and all civil and common citizenship rights as the only safeguards of democratic institutions.

WOMEN'S MOVEMENTS: The endorsement of equal rights and equal participation of women as necessary and more favorable to the advance of the race situation.

PUBLIC UTTERANCE: The necessity of reserving the right of protest and of maintaining free and untrammeled public utterance as the chief resource against discrimination and injustice.

INTER-RACIAL RELATIONS: The stressing of the increasing need for local effort and community adjustments because of the recent changes of distribution in the Negro population; endorsement of the system of inter-racial committees, and the recommendation of the extension of this plan to communities where they have not yet been established; recommending that Negro organizations assume financial responsibility for their fair share in the support of civil and social projects.

IT was in connection with the discussion of his own special problems that the most characteristically new phases of race life and effort were discussed and developed. Repeatedly the present moment was characterized as the advent of the era of self-help and self-direction. There was determination to transform the liabilities of the enforced separatism of his race life into group assets of spiritual, social, and cultural autonomy. Overtopping the sense of limited resources and restricted opportunity, there was a prevailing practical optimism that in these aspects the assets of the Negro, well administered, were equal to the task of meeting the

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heavy liabilities of his status in this democracy and the grave responsibilities of maintaining a life necessarily separate in some respects from that of the older elements in the population. In the words of the sponsor of the movement, "This conference is destined to inaugurate on the large scale a new phase of race life which has been developing for a decade or so with the improved economic and educational condition of the Negro population—namely the period of self-help and organized cooperation toward discharging our share of responsibility, direction, and effort in the solution of the race situation in America."

Seven points of internal policy were unanimously recommended.

BUSINESS: The concentrated development of business enterprises, cooperative and private, toward the development of financial prosperity and economic independence; and, as necessary to the success of these, the supplementing of industrial and technical training with professional business training.

FRATERNAL ORGANIZATIONS: The importance of combining, through inter-fraternity organizations, the considerable and growing resources of the Negro fraternal and benevolent associations for the financing of social projects in education, business and community betterment.

PUBLIC PRESS: The importance of maintaining a race press higher than the average standards and freer from the commitments of partisanship and the policy of commercialized news, in the interests of greater race unity and more dignified and representative race publicity.

RACE MOVEMENTS: The desirability of building up cooperative contacts between the Negro peoples of America, the West Indies, and Africa, and of a development, both as a responsibility and opportunity, of the movement for help in the economic educational and spiritual redemption of Africa.

NEGRO YOUTH: The development of organized contact between the organizations of Negro college youth and the general body of race organizations, and the endorsement of the constructive program of the committee of the Negro college fraternities and sororities.

CULTURAL PROGRAM: The desirability of promoting travel and extending journalistic and educational contacts between all bodies of Negro peoples, of promoting scientifically accurate information about the history and achievements of the Negro, and of stressing the study of African civilizations and culture; the capitalizing of the undoubted spiritual assets of the race in all forms of the cultural arts as perhaps the most immediately available and promising path to world service and recognition.

So dominating the whole, there is the determination to resort to the motive of race appeal to supply the lack and denial of many other inspirational incentives and rewards. It was this that Kelly Miller had in mind when he said: "After all, the Negro Sanhedrin is an influence rather than an organization, and it will fail of its essential aim unless it holds up an ideal to Negro youth which is worth living for, worth striving for, and, if need be, worth dying for."

ALAIN LOCKE

Heard at a Hearing

UPSTAIRS the immense marble corridors of the Senate Office Building buzzed with the excited murmurs of the throng that fought their way to hear the inquest of an administration. There were disappointed ward heelers, revelling in the discomfiture of the important, and rolling on their tongues, in a kind of vicarious gluttony, the mention of the tens and hundreds of thousands of dollars alleged to have eased the way of this or that seeker for special privilege and power.

"He's sliding, he's sliding, keep pushing, you'll get him yet," interjected a seedy, hawk-nosed individual at the back of the committee room in a string of hissing whispers, as Senator Wheeler pressed harder at a recalcitrant witness. "There," with a sigh of relief, as the desired admission came out, "you've nailed him."

Next to him sat a matronly soul from Iowa, who, with her daughter of mature years, had come for a first look at the nation's capital. Had the white marble pillars danced a sailor's hornpipe before them, the two ladies could have suffered no more distressing conviction that the world was reeling, as this or that party, or scandalous deal, slipped from the lips of witnesses unabashed. Beside them a veteran of suffrage campaigns, now charging, "regardless," toward Socialism, held her grizzled head high in jubilation at this palpable proof that Men and Money are Evil. Beyond were two ladies in near-seal coats, who knew everything and obligingly volunteered it. One gathered that their husbands were on the inside. And other ladies, who were sure that they could not understand anything, but thought it so interesting, nevertheless. On the other side of the mahogany tables sat the row of senators, flanked by important personages who slipped in through the private entrance to suggest or advise, and through the room there was a constant shuttle of copy boys passing notes from the reporters' tables to the telegrapher whose special wires clicked outside.

The meeting adjourned, with a rumble of chairs pushed back, rustling coats, and striking matches.

"Well, I guess that was worth getting up early for," the lady from Iowa confided to her daughter, looking for a sunshiny prop to her shaken world.

Everyone had a sense of importance, of having participated in something epoch-making. Just the mention of those pleasant trips to the West Indies, those little luncheons and dinners at which so much of importance was discussed between cocktails and liqueurs, those pressing questions of the wisdom of this or that investment, left a general sense of well-being.

It was snowing miserably outside, and many of the audience drifted down to the restaurant in the Senate Office Building, that refuge where a cup of coffee still costs five cents. The service was very poor. The manager explained that her waitresses had walked out, and that she had had to send over to the Capitol for black boys unaccustomed to her ways. On each table was a new black and white card, which announced

No Tipping Permitted
Waitresses Accepting Tips will be Dismissed at Once

Beside their lead story of the thousands of dollars of graft and hush money, the afternoon papers carried a paragraph which explained that government waitresses had struck at this order—which would leave them only their weekly wage of ten dollars.

MARY ROSS

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The Common Welfare

THE designation of Curtis Dwight Wilbur, chief justice of the California Supreme Court, as secretary of the navy was an event of warm personal interest to social workers of the Pacific coast. Judge Wilbur's name is connected with many social work enterprises in California, and particularly with work for the welfare of children.

He was associated with the beginnings of the juvenile court law of California. Between 1905 and 1907, and again in 1913, he served on the committees which successively worked on the many amendments and redrafts of the law. In 1907, when he lived in Los Angeles and served as a justice of the Superior Court, he was one of the organizers of the juvenile court there. Though his retirement from juvenile court work, after some disagreement with his probation committee, was a somewhat dramatic and personal incident, his generous gift of time and thought to the problems of the wards of the court has by no means been forgotten.

The judge has always been a force behind constructive legislation for the care and prevention of child dependency. He backed the Boys' Brigade with enthusiasm and persistent friendliness. Until he became justice of the state supreme court, he was an outstanding figure at all the state conferences of social workers. During the war and since, he has been a leader in raising money for the Near East Relief. His interest in social work springs from a profound religious conviction: he is an ardent churchman and believes that social service is a function of a truly religious life.

ALREADY most people have forgotten what it was that two months ago made them look forward to April 1 with apprehension. During January and February editors of magazines and the managing editors of the metropolitan dailies were making preparations in anticipation of a possible national coal strike to begin at midnight of March 31. Bituminous coal operators, railroads, manufacturing establishments had accumulated unusually large reserves of fuel against the anticipated crisis. Early in February the international convention of the United Mine Workers of America adopted the recommendation of its Scale Committee to instruct the miners' representatives in the approaching negotiations with the bituminous operators "to secure the best agreement obtainable . . . *on the basis of no reduction in wages* . . . the next wage scale (to) cover a period of four years, beginning April 1, 1924." On this issue of no reduction in wages the operators had forced a strike in 1922. It was generally expected that they would contest it again, that the miners would again refuse to yield, that trouble would ensue.

But nothing of the kind happened. In the balmy atmosphere of Jacksonville, Florida, the miners and bituminous operators held a joint conference that proceeded like a Friends' meeting, and on Tuesday, February 19, signed an agreement on the miners' terms, with the difference that it is to run for three instead of four years. As we go to press the newspapers announce that on referendum vote of the membership, the miners have approved the work of their representatives.

THE Coal Age, the trade journal that functions as the semi-official spokesman of the operators, is frankly dazed by the event. "It seems almost incredible," it says editorially, that with business being lost almost beyond recovery by reason of a high wage scale the operators would consent to sign for the present wage. . . . Indications pointed to a long fight on the period of the contract. But even there the needle pointed in the wrong direction." Such a veteran reporter of the miners' official activities as John J. Leary Jr. of the New York World is equally amazed. "Here for the first time so far as records and memory serve, a great union deliberately sets out upon a program that must, if it works, reduce membership by tens of thousands. And it is even more remarkable that this program was forced not by the employing side of the industry upon the employed, but by the employes upon the employers." President John L. Lewis of the United Mine Workers is quoted as saying that many high cost mines will have to be closed and that the excessive number of workers in the industry will be cut down. But he thinks that the agreement will "stabilize" coal production, and that while "many are going to be hurt, the rule must be the greatest good of the greatest number." At a press conference in Washington, Secretary Hoover hailed the agreement as "the most constructive step in the industry in many years."

THE SURVEY is seeking the cooperation of public men and leaders in the industry in obtaining the basis for an interpretation of the agreement in its bearings upon the technical conduct of the industry and upon the consumer. Meanwhile evidence accumulates to show that one of the major effects of unstable production and high fuel prices will be the rapid extension of the electrical industry in the direction forecast in our Giant Power number.

On March 20, the president of the American Water Works and Electric Company announced the completion of a series of cooperative agreements for the mutual exchange of electric power by nine power companies, designated as the "coal field group" because their generating plants are located in the heart of the bituminous coal fields.

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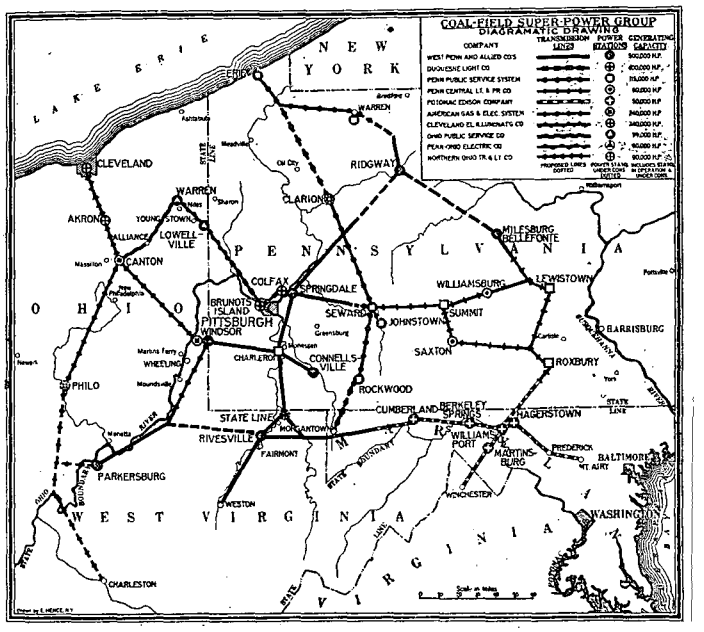
The group has a combined capitalization of $315,000,000 and a generating capacity of 2,000,000 horse power—double the capacity of the twenty-one undertakings of the Ontario Hydro-Electric Power Commission. The extent of this unit in the giant power system is shown by the chart prepared by the American Water Works and Electric Company, Inc. On March 15 the bank and stock exchange tickers carried a statement of the General Electric-Westinghouse group that the greatest prospective development in which these companies will share involves "huge power systems in various parts of the country. . . . Generation of power in the past six years developed more than in preceding 35 years, by 1930 it is expected to double and then redouble in the next 7 years." A few days before the Philadelphia North American carried the announcement that surveys were well advanced looking to the location of three sites where plants with a capacity of 300,000 kilowatts are to be built in the anthracite district. The plant to be built near Sunbury is to have a capacity of 300,000 kilowatts, and will consume approximately 1,600,000 long tons of buckwheat coal a year. From this base load plant 220,000 volt lines on steel towers will radiate to the large light, heat and power consuming centers. "This company," says the North American, "is virtually controlled by the General Electric Company."

If the miners and operators are foresighted they will not ignore the bearing of these vast electrical developments in the coal fields on the future of their industry.



WHILE the craft-work of individual settlements in New York has been shown for many years to an appreciative public, this is the first year in which the houses have come together for a joint showing of their output. Such an exhibit, arranged by the art and festivals committee of the United Neighborhood Houses, was held in March at the Art Center with the cooperation of eighteen settlements.

Seen in this broader perspective, the work has obviously two aspects—that of experts trained in the "old country," and that of the American-born children and young people who find in these art activities at the settlements some outlet for their creative energies. Among the many varied contributions which immigrants have to make to American life, none is more vital than their rich tradition of artistic craftsmanship. But the present industrial system of our country affords little outlet for these gifts. They must be deliberately fostered lest they die. The settlements, through this arts committee, are trying to supply industrial incentive for these old-world skills. No less important is the effort to bring to expression new creative tendencies. One could wish that there were more evidence of that in the exhibit, especially in the work of the children. But courage for self-expression is a requisite for creative work, and the life of New York's cramped neighborhoods is hardly conducive to that.

The embroideries of the Lenox Hill Studio are of special interest. The needlewomen of that neighborhood, trained in the old world, are executing under the capable direction of an expert designer, special orders for draperies, chair-seats, and other such articles for use in interior decorating. Their work has distinction as exemplified by the crewel draperies, made for the new Vassar Club, which suggest the colorful richness of the William Morris fabrics.

Among the exhibits of Henry Street Settlement were some articles that had been worked out along the lines of recent educational methods as "group projects." Each child of a club, for example, is responsible for one square of a bed-spread. Although such a project affords little latitude for originality of expression, it makes for a spirit of cooperative workmanship that is valuable in itself, and gives to the child who has no great individual talent some outlet for such creative expression as he may possess.

NO ONE in Ontario is going to be able to say that full opportunity has not been given the electorate to decide for itself whether it wants to be "wet" or "dry." When the Ontario Temperance Act established provincial prohibition, in September 1916, local option over a period of more than ten years had already lined up 574 out of 851 municipalities in the dry column, so that the change could hardly have been called precipitate. Recognizing that the war created special legislative conditions, however, the legislature provided that the act should remain in force only until a referendum could be taken after the war.

A dominion-wide prohibition law was in effect during 1918 and 1919. On October 20 of the latter year Ontario held its referendum, and the electors upheld provincial prohibition by a sweeping majority—792,942 votes out of 1,162,376 cast. The law, incidentally, is less stringent than the Volstead Act in two particulars: intoxicating liquor is defined as having a content of two and one-half per cent of alcohol, instead of one-half of one per cent, and the manufacture and sale of wine from native grapes is not forbidden. Yet there has been enough agitation for a change, since 1919, to justify the Conservatives in bidding for votes last summer by pledging a fresh referendum.

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The Conservatives turned out the farmer government, and are now making arrangements to carry out their promise. The Ontario legislature has recently voted to send the O. T. A.—as the law is familiarly called—back to the people at a date yet to be fixed and with a questionnaire to be drafted by the government. It is expected that the referendum will be held before the end of this year. Friends of prohibition say that they expect the voters to support the law again, and that a second favorable return will have a salutary influence on enforcement.

THE Permanent Health Committee of the League of Nations which met during the latter part of February in Geneva had several new and interesting suggestions to consider besides the regular reports of the sub-committee on opium, cancer, malaria, and waterways. The commission of inquiry sent to the Far East to examine port sanitary administration suggested that a central bureau of epidemiological intelligence be set up in some central place in the Far East and also that the Far Eastern states should conclude among themselves a sanitary convention. The value of such a suggestion is apparent when it is remembered that plague, cholera and leprosy are endemic in the Far East. Also the Health Committee has been considering a proposal made by the Dutch Government to "grade" ports as to sanitary conditions. Ships sailing from "Grade A" ports and not touching at ungraded ports or those of a lower grade will not need to go through another examination at ports of entry. This is accomplished by treaty between a few countries but under the League of Nations the plan would be extended to all members of the League.

The United States is taking a very important part in the work of the Health Committee. At this meeting Dr. Hugh S. Cumming, surgeon-general of the United States Public Health Service, was appointed vice president. An interchange of medical health personnel among the various countries has been made possible through the generosity of the International Health Board of the Rockefeller Foundation, which contributes $60,000 a year to the League funds for that purpose. From September to January, for example, twenty-four physicians from eighteen European and American countries visited selected fields of observation in the United States, and then carried back special reports to the Geneva meeting. Plans for 1924 include interchanges in Great Britain, the Netherlands, Denmark, Switzerland, and the Far East.

WITH due allowance for the various political gestures involved, there can only be genuine satisfaction over the action of the House of Representatives in voting to appropriate $10,000,000 for the relief of the women and children of Germany. The resolution authorizes the president to purchase in the United States, through such agency as he may designate, and to transport and distribute in Germany grain, fats, milk and other foodstuffs adapted to the relief of the distressed starving women and children. One amendment only, of many proposed, was adopted: it provides that the supplies shall be purchased wherever possible through farmers' organizations.

Dr. Emerson reported in The Survey for February that two million school children and half a million children too young to go to school were in need of help. The situation has grown worse: according to a recent cable from Henry Tatmall Brown, director of the Friends' relief work in Germany, not less than three million school children and one and a half million under six must have outside help during the next three or four months. And a cable of March 24 to the American Friends' Service Committee reports that the supply of bread grains, (wheat and rye) in Germany will last only until about the beginning of June and that the new crop will not be available until the latter part of September. Supplies of lard, bacon, frozen meat, and corned beef will hardly cover the needs for the next three weeks.

Secretary Hoover was asked by the House committee what he thought of the proposed appropriation. "I can only feel one way about children," he said. It is to be hoped that the Senate will see the issue as clearly, and act as directly as the House has done. It would be a pity to clutter up the resolution with needless restrictions and provisos; it would be a graver pity to defer action while hunger and misery increase.

BOTH its bearing on American public opinion and the repercussion on opinion abroad entered into the choice of the convention city for the fourth biennial of the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom which meets at Washington on May 1. This is the first congress to be held outside of Europe since the inception of the league in 1915. Delegates from over thirty countries will tell of conditions and trends of thought in Europe and discuss methods by which the forces for good will may help break the deadlocks which constrain governmental action. It will be remembered that Jane Addams is president of this body which maintained its fellowship throughout the war period.

Since the armistice, the influence of these groups of women, working quietly and steadily in the various countries, has mounted; new accessions have come to their ranks, a new and more friendly popular psychology has fortified their faith in the cause for which they stood when it received scant hearing; and on this they are building. A New International Order will be the general theme of the Washington gathering.

Among the delegates will be Selma Lagerlöf, the Swedish author, typical of the important part which the women of the neutrals have played throughout. But increasingly, groups of women of the nations most desperately engaged in the war have made themselves felt. There is significance both in the message (and in the response to it) which in January of this year, when Franco-German relations seemed to be about as bad as they possible could be, Romain Rolland sent to a public meeting organized by the French Section of the league. It read in part as follows:

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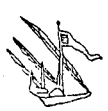
Even if forced to submit to a disastrous policy, our two nations have still the power and they have a duty to proclaim that they disapprove—to condemn openly the acts of oppression and of incitement to hate, by which a discord is maintained between them, profitable only to the exploiters of both. . . . What has withered the soul of Europe, what after these years of war, weighs heavily upon the heart of the two peoples—of the conquerer no less than the conquered—what prevents them from recovering their pleasure in living, in working, in hoping, is the mutual distrust, hatred, degrading suspicion. The two victims increase their unhappiness in reproaching each other for it. Friends—friends of France and of Germany, let us rather share and thus lessen it!

The Washington meeting is the first occasion since the world war that an international peace conference has been held in the United States. There are branches of the league in twenty-four American states, and the Congress will be preceded by a one-day conference of the United States section of the league. Here pan-American problems will be discussed, and a campaign initiated urging the President to call a conference of the debtor and creditor nations.

Following the congress, and a reception at Goucher College, Baltimore, a special train, to be called the "Pax Special," will carry many of the delegates to the International Summer School of the league in Chicago (May 17-31), making stops at Philadelphia, Pittsburg, Columbus, Cincinnati and Indianapolis.



THE way of the conservationist is hard. When it isn't Teapot Dome, it is Bright Angel. Indeed, Bright Angel is the theme of a solo in brass which echoes to the life the theme of mean-spirited greed which has been blared forth from half-a-dozen choirs in Washington during the past noisy months.

Bright Angel is a trail which winds fascinatingly, and sometimes disconcertingly down from the southern rim of the Grand Canyon to Colorado River—a mile vertically, seven miles as the mules saunter down, seventy miles, the local saying goes, as the pedestrian labors back! Most tourists take it on mule-back; thereby enriching, at the rate of one dollar per mule per trip, the treasury of Conconino County, Arizona, which holds title to the trail as a toll-road, though it lies within the Grand Canyon National Park.

Along the trail, "strategically located with reference to proposed and probable development of the canyon as a tourist attraction," according to the Department of the Interior some years ago, lie the mining claims of one Cameron. No minerals have ever been found, in amounts sufficient to be commercially valuable, on these claims; many of them have been held invalid by the Department of the Interior which has been sustained in its finding by the United States Supreme Court. Yet Cameron's agents or successors still remain in possession and have prevented thus far the development of suitable and necessary facilities for the use of visitors. Indeed they foul the water which hot and thirsty tourists want to drink. As recently as March 1, 1924, the park superintendent reported that the signs which he had put up to warn tourists against drinking the typhoid-infected water at the trail's best resting-place had been torn down by the rival caretaker, who refused to permit them to use the good water at a spring higher up on the privately owned property.

One is naturally curious to know what sort of person this Cameron may be. He is Ralph H. Cameron, United States Senator from Arizona.

SINCE March 1 Senator Cameron has graciously consented to advise the custodian to allow tourists to use the pure water as they see fit. But it is perhaps no coincidence that the Senate has eliminated from the Interior appropriation bill an item of $100,000 for the purchase of the trail, by the national government, from Conconino County—which would obviously simplify the situation and put the control of this famous pathway in strong hands. The money, incidentally, would by terms of the proposed contract with the county be spent under the supervision of the National Park Service in bettering the motor road from the nearest point on the Santa Fé Trail to the southern rim of the Canyon and thus make it still easier for the public to enjoy the park.

The New York World sums up the matter pungently, if somewhat sketchily, thus:

According to Washington despatches, some Congressman is accused of trying to get away with the Grand Canyon of the Colorado in Arizona. That still leaves the Milky Way.

Incidentally, the old fight to exploit the Yellowstone is on again. Senator Walsh (from Montana, not Massachusetts) has introduced two bills looking to the eventual damming of the Yellowstone River. The way of the conservationist is not only hard: it is often monotonously familiar.

THE child labor amendment, as this issue goes to press, is cleanly over its first two hurdles and speeding toward the third. The House Judiciary Committee reported it favorably on March 26, by the decisive vote of 14 to 6—the chairman of the committee, Representative George S. Graham of Pennsylvania, being counted in the negative The friends of the amendment, led by Israel M. Foster, a congressman from Ohio, hoped to bring it to a vote in the House during the second week in April.

The Senate Committee took similar action on March 31, reporting the resolution in identical terms—those quoted in The Survey of March 15 (p. 675). There is, however, a good deal of uncertainty as to the date when it will be possible to secure a vote in the upper house, and persistent pressure may be needed to carry it through. One favorable factor is that the Wadsworth amendment proposing a change in the method of amending the constitution, after once being reported to the Senate, was sent back to committee on March 26. There had been talk of sidetracking the child labor amendment till the other was acted on. Now that Senator Shortridge's measure has the right of way there is only the clutter of unfinished business and the die-hard opposition of a handful of senators to block its progress These are enough, however, to defeat any but the most energetic action on the part of its friends.

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INDUSTRY

Sleep at Night

THERE is a fairy story in which the traditional charming little girl with golden hair comes suddenly upon a small door in what has hitherto been a tall blank wall. She fumbles around it for a long time and finally puts her finger on the secret spring that opens it, and creeps through into a beautiful green world full of all possible delights.

The recent decision of the Supreme Court in the case of Joseph Radice *v.* the People of the State of New York is another such door. This decision upholds the constitutionality of the New York state law prohibiting night work for women, and forms a precedent for similar laws in other states. The case, which is one of employing women after ten o'clock at night in a restaurant in Buffalo, has been hanging fire since 1917. It has fought its way through the intermediate appellate courts to the Court of Appeals, and from there on up to the Supreme Court. There was no expectation of its being called so soon. The groups which are usually back of such cases—organizations of public spirited citizens—were not looking for it. But the district attorney of Buffalo was very definitely on his job. He hurried to Washington, stayed there two days and argued it before the Supreme Court. It is a great feather in his cap that he should have won his case.

The New York statute which this decision establishes as constitutional is a more or less feeble and ill-considered law. It applies only to cities of the first and second classes; only to restaurants; and only to a fifty-four-hour week and a nine-hour day; but it does say that no woman over the age of sixteen shall be allowed to work before six o'clock in the morning, or after ten o'clock at night. There are several painful exceptions: women may be employed in restaurants as singers or performers of any kind at any hour that suits their convenience; they may be employed as attendants in ladies' coat rooms or parlors, and this is logical because it would seem to be an occupation from which men are excluded; they may be employed in connection with the dining rooms and kitchens of hotels, which seems unfortunate, as well as in connection with lunch rooms or restaurants conducted by employers solely for the benefit of their own employes.

THE validity of the New York statute was challenged upon the ground that it deprives the employer and the employe of their liberty of contract, and that it also establishes an unreasonable and arbitrary classification. Justice Sutherland, in delivering the opinion of the Court, said:

> The basis of the first contention is that the statute unduly and arbitrarily interferes with the liberty of two adult persons to make a contract of employment for themselves. The answer of the State is that night work of the kind prohibited, so injuriously affects the physical condition of women, and so threatens to impair their peculiar and natural functions, and so exposes them to the dangers and menaces incident to night life in large cities, that a statute prohibiting such work falls within the police power of the State to preserve and promote the public health and welfare.
>
> The legislature had before it a mass of information from which it concluded that night work is substantially and especially detrimental to the health of women. We cannot say that the conclusion is without warrant. The loss of restful night's sleep cannot be fully made up by sleep in the day time, especially in busy cities, subject to the disturbances incident to modern life. The injurious consequences were thought by the legislature to bear more heavily against women than men, and, considering their more delicate organism, there would seem to be good reason for so thinking. The fact, assuming it to be such, properly may be made the basis of legislation applicable only to women.

Justice Sutherland quoted the case of Muller *v.* Oregon:

> The limitations which this statute places upon her contractual powers, upon her right to agree with her employer as to the time she shall labor, are not imposed solely for her benefit, but also largely for the benefit of all. Many words cannot make this plainer. The two sexes differ in structure of body, in the functions to be performed by each, in the amount of physical strength, in the capacity for long continued labor, particularly when done standing, the influence of vigorous health upon the future well-being of the race, the self-reliance which enables one to assert full rights, and in the capacity to maintain the struggle for subsistence. This difference justifies a difference in legislation and upholds that which is designed to compensate for some of the burdens which rest upon her.

In his opinion the considerations which led the Supreme Court to decide against the maintenance of the minimum wage law in the District of Columbia in the case of Adkins *v.* Children's Hospital do not hold in the case of night work. On this subject he says:

> The statute in the Adkins case was a wage-fixing law, pure and simple. It had nothing to do with the hours or conditions of labor. We held that it exacted from the employer "an arbitrary payment for a purpose and upon a basis having no causal connection with the business, or the contract or the work" of the employe.

Of the second contention, that it establishes an unreasonable and arbitrary classification, he states:

> The limitation of the legislative prohibition to cities of the first and second class does not bring about an unreasonable and arbitrary classification. . . . Nor is there substance in the contention that the exclusion of restaurant employes of a special kind, and of hotels and employes' lunchrooms, renders the statute obnoxious to the Constitution. The statute does not present a case where some persons of a class are selected for special restraint from which others of the same class are left free . . . but a case where all in the same class of work, are included in the restraint. . . . Every selection of persons for regulation so results, in some degree. The inequality produced, in order to encounter the challenge of the Constitution, must be "actually and palpably unreasonable and arbitrary."

And Justice Sutherland quotes an opinion of former Justice Hughes:

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The contention as to the various omissions which are noted in the objections here urged ignores the well-established principle that the legislature is not bound, in order to support the constitutional validity of its regulation, to extend it to all cases which it might possibly reach. Dealing with practical exigencies, the legislature may be guided by experience.... It is free to recognize degrees of harm, and it may confine its restrictions to those classes of cases where the need is deemed to be clearest. As has been said, it may "proceed cautiously, step by step," and "if an evil is specially experienced in a particular branch of business" it is not necessary that the prohibition "should be couched in all-embracing terms."

THE importance of this decision is that we have in it a basis for other similar legislation. Upon the strength of it, it may be possible to bring the United States in line with the other peoples of the world who realize that night work for women is an asocial activity. It is always reasonably comforting to find ourselves beginning to catch up with the more progressive countries of Europe. As long ago as 1844 Great Britain passed a law, the first of its kind passed anywhere in the world, prohibiting women from working in textile mills between 8:30 p.m. and 5:30 a.m. or more than twelve hours in any one day. Then in 1877 Switzerland followed suit; in 1885 Austria; in 1889 the Netherlands; in '81 Germany; '92 France; and in 1902 Italy. Now in 1924 we are coming into the fold. In all these laws up to the present time, health and welfare of women had been the basis of legislation, since they are held to be important to the state. Europe has felt them to be so important that when in 1906 the Federal Council of Switzerland called an international conference to consider this one thing, the agreement that was there arrived at was ratified by all the powers represented, except Denmark, before 1912. This agreement provides that industrial night work be prohibited for women in all establishments with more than ten employes, except only where these employes are all members of the proprietor's family. The states are left to determine for themselves what is an industrial establishment. Second, the 11 hours of rest provided must include those between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. Third, this agreement may be suspended only under abnormal circumstances which will not recur, and if the work is upon materials liable to rapid deterioration. Seasonal industries are allowed to suspend it for not more than 60 days a year, when they may reduce the number of hours of rest at night to ten instead of eleven. The states are expected to enforce their own laws in their own ways, and their laws are only applicable to their colonies if the Swiss Federation has been notified. This law may also be amended outside of Europe in the cases of colonies or protected states. There are various agreements as to how soon the law shall become effective in different industries, but in no case can it be rescinded in less than twelve years, which means that in 1924 Europe will have a second chance at it.

And now our American working women have as good a chance to sleep at night as their European sisters. Not that we have the laws yet but that we know it is within the provisions of the Constitution that we should have them.

Very many things hang on this case. For if it is constitutional to prohibit the night work of women it is undoubtedly constitutional to prohibit their work for more than a specified number of hours on the very same ground that led the Supreme Court to this momentous decision.

M. B. B.

The Salt of the Public Service

SPEAKER GILLETTE of the House of Representatives, in addressing a group of Amherst alumni, urged his audience to believe that "our government on the whole is sound and not tainted with corruption." In spite of the current shocking revelations of corruption in the upper reaches of the public services, the vast majority of Americans retain their faith in the government without urging. The reason is that most of us who are just plain citizens come into contact with the public service not through cabinet officers like Mr. Fall, or heads of bureaus like Mr. Forbes, but through public school teachers, public health officers, the traffic cop, and more particularly the mail carriers of whom it has been said that neither snow nor rain nor gloom of night stays them from the swift completion of their appointed rounds. These common soldiers in the army of peace are the salt of the public service.

The national administration of the Post Office has frequently been subjected to criticism; the mail carriers, whether they make their appointed rounds on city streets, rural delivery routes, or along the charted highways of the air, have won and hold universal friendship and regard. In the esteem of most of us they hold a place with the village parson and the country doctor. And it may be because they serve us so unobtrusively and faithfully that we take their service for granted and reward them with sentiment rather than with their due measure of the coin of the realm.

This common habit of abusing the faithful servant in the house is typified in a statement which, according to the press, the White House issued in commenting upon the Kelly-Edge Bill embodying the petition of postal employes for an increase in wages. The statement said that "the President believes that the postal pay increase is based on justice"; *but* it is "classed by the President among the bills which would have

SALARIES OF LETTER CARRIERS

	1st Grade (*a*)		*2nd Grade* (*a*)		*3rd Grade* (*a*)		*4th Grade* (*a*)		*5th Grade* (*a*)		*Substitutes*	
	Amt.	Index	Amt.	Index	Amt.	Index	Amt.	Index	Amt.	Index	Amt.	Index
1914	800	100	900	100	1000	100	1100	100	1200	100	40	100
1917 Mar. 2....	880	110										
1918 July 1....1000b		125	1100b	122	1200b	120	1300b	118	1400b	117		
1919 July 1....1300c		163	1400c	156	1450c	145	1550c	141	1650c	138	60	150
1920 July 1....1400		175	1500	166	1600	160	1700	154	1800	150		

a. These are the grades as existing subsequent to July 1, 1920. Prior to 1914 there were six grades. The first was abolished in 1913, leaving those given above as the 2nd to 6th. On July 1, 1918, by a new classification, six grades were again introduced and a salary was set for the lowest (here omitted). On July 1, 1920, another reclassification set the five grades as shown above.

b. As a matter of fact the law provided a $300 increase for each grade, but stipulated that no man should receive more than a $200 increase for the year. This also automatically cancelled promotions for the year from one grade to another.

c. These are the salaries established by the law of November 8, 1919. This superseded the law of February 28, 1919, which had made it possible for the various grades to receive the maximum previously established, effective July 1, 1919, and had restored promotions.

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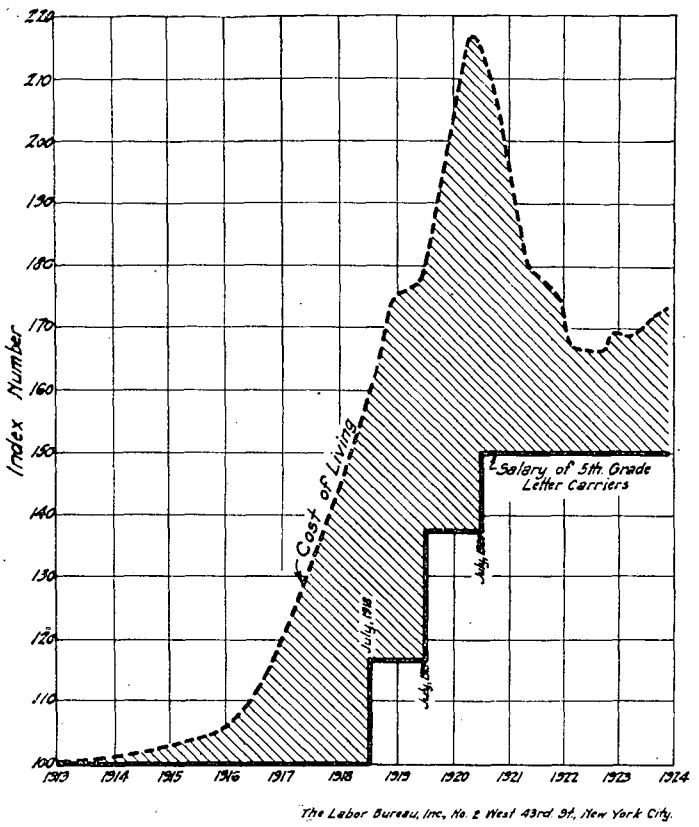
INCREASE IN FIFTH-GRADE LETTER CARRIERS' SALARIES COMPARED WITH INCREASE IN COST OF LIVING 1913-1923



a disturbing effect upon the country if enacted." It would be a distressing instance of public complacency if the people and Congress should agree with the White House that because the postal employes are in honor and duty bound to forego the usual defense of wage workers against injustice—the strike—injustice should be deliberately visited upon them.

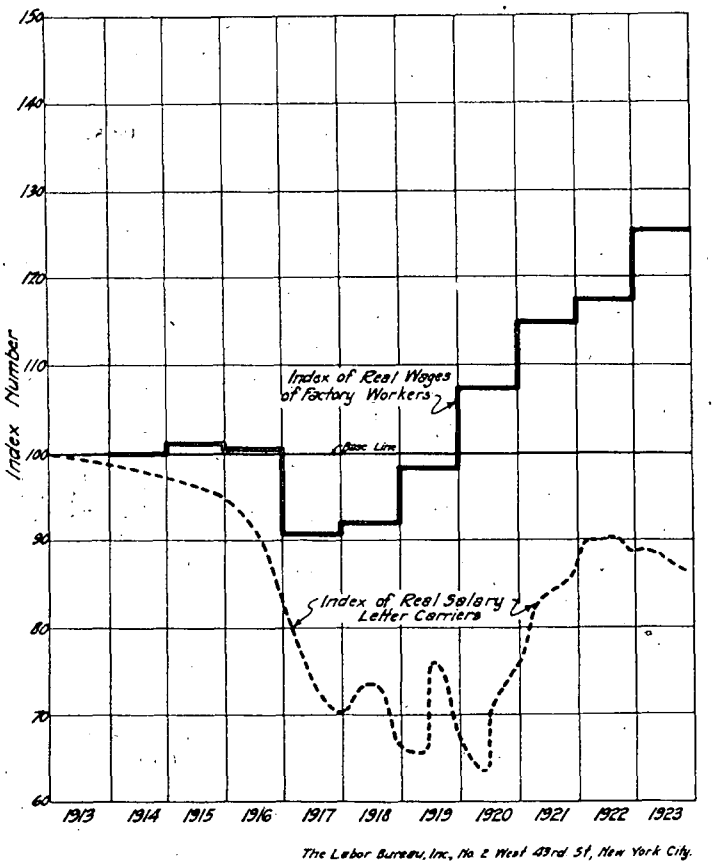
The letter carriers constitute one of the largest groups in the postal service. Their present wages and the increases for which they are petitioning fairly illustrate the quality of justice which the Kelly-Edge Bill aims to render. In the present classification there are five principal grades of carriers, of which the fifth is the highest. The Kelly-Edge Bill reclassifies them into three grades. This fact must be borne in mind by those who have a copy of the bill before them. The brief of the National Association of Letter Carriers, submitted by Secretary Edward J. Cantwell and prepared with the aid of George Soule of the Labor Bureau, Inc., is of course primarily based upon the existing classification.

To reach the highest grade a man must not only have passed rigid physical and mental tests, but must also have spent from four and a half to eight years in the service. He must not only be master of the postal rules and regulations (filling a book of 800 pages), competent to handle insured and C. O. D. mail, carry in his memory the names on his route, sometimes numbering thousands, but he must also be ready to assume special responsiblities in aid of the several secret service and other departments of the government. The carrier in charge of a motor vehicle must be a competent mechanic and chauffeur. In brief, the letter carriers' qualifications must be equal to those of skilled men in the mechanical trades.

In 1913 and 1914 the highest grade letter carriers were paid $1,200 a year. Their first increase of 16.7 per cent brought them to $1,400 in June 1918. Other increases in 1919 and 1920 brought them to $1,800, only 50 per cent above the 1914 level. During the same period the wages of the lowest grade carriers rose from $800 to $1,400. How these increases compare with the fluctuations in the cost of living, and when translated into terms of real wages, with the increases received by factory workers (as recorded by the New York State Department of Labor), is graphically shown in the accompanying charts, which we owe to the courtesy of the Labor Bureau, Inc.

There can be little doubt that any jury of 12 honest men and true would find for the letter carriers on the evidence. "There are not many who would begrudge them the $2,400 a year they are asking," says the New York Times. "We do not ask a landlord to accept kind words in lieu of rent. There is no reason why we should ask postmen to accept honor in lieu of groceries or their equivalent," says the Chicago Tribune. "Employes of the postal service are underpaid and overworked," says the Philadelphia Public Ledger. But the hue and cry today is for economy in federal expenditure, with or without justice or efficiency. And the Labor Bureau, Inc., finds that the cost of the increases proposed in the Kelly-Edge Bill, carefully calculated by the members of each salary grade and the increases for each grade, would total about $111,000,000. This seems a large sum. But it must be examined, not only in the light of justice to the postal employes, but also in the light of the service which the department is rendering. Postal receipts, and consequently volume of business, have grown steadily until in 1923 they were 85 per cent larger than in

INCREASE IN REAL WAGES OF FACTORY WORKERS COMPARED WITH DECREASE IN REAL WAGES OF LETTER CARRIERS 1914-1923



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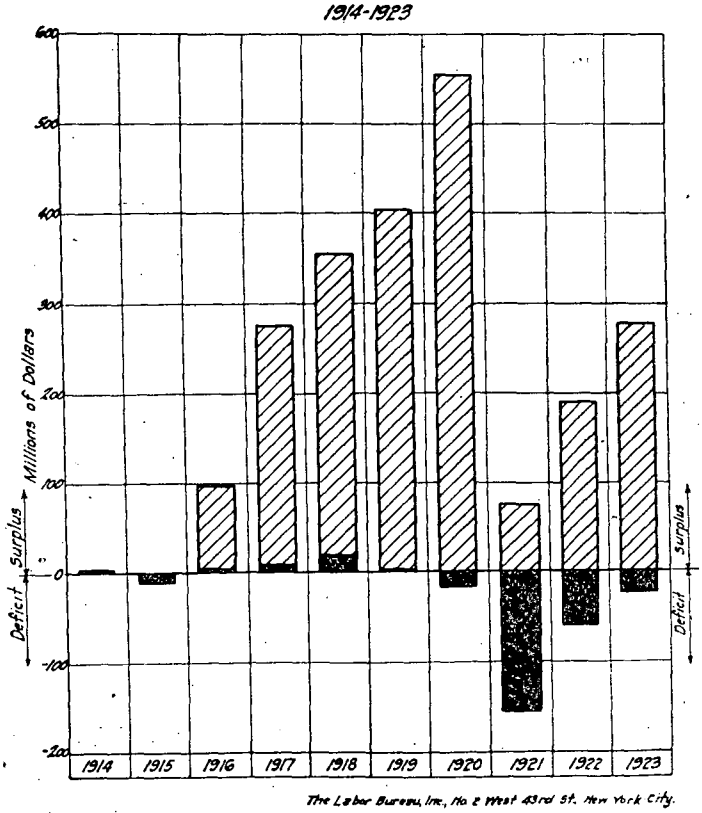
1914. The volume of mail handled by the average letter carrier has increased about 50 per cent in the last ten years. If the real wages of letter carriers were increased to the level to which they are entitled by their 50 per cent increase in productivity, those in the highest grade would now be receiving over $3,000 a year instead of $1,800. Wholesale prices in the United States increased 131 per cent between 1914 and 1920, and then, after dropping slightly, became stabilized in 1923 at 57 per cent above 1914. Postal rates in the meantime have not only not been increased but in some cases have actually been considerably reduced. Foreign letter postage, for example, has been decreased by the extension of the domestic rate to 41 nations, including virtually all of the Western Hemisphere, as well as England and Ireland. Parcels post service makes up about 70 per cent of the volume of mail, and in this class postal rates have also been reduced since 1914. As a result the Post Office Department has been running a net deficit for the past four years. What the effect upon Post Office surpluses and deficits would have been if rates had been raised as much as wholesale prices is shown by the accompanying chart. Postal operations for the past four years would in that case have returned a total surplus of over $1,100,000,000 instead of a total deficit of $259,000,000.

Equipped with such facts as these, can it be doubted that all fair-minded persons would join with the letter carriers in asking whether it is just for the public to profit in abnormally low postal rates while denying to the postal employes a decent standard of living? If the people of the United States deliberately visit injustice upon tens of thousands of their most faithful employes must they not expect that the salt of the public service will in due course lose its savor?

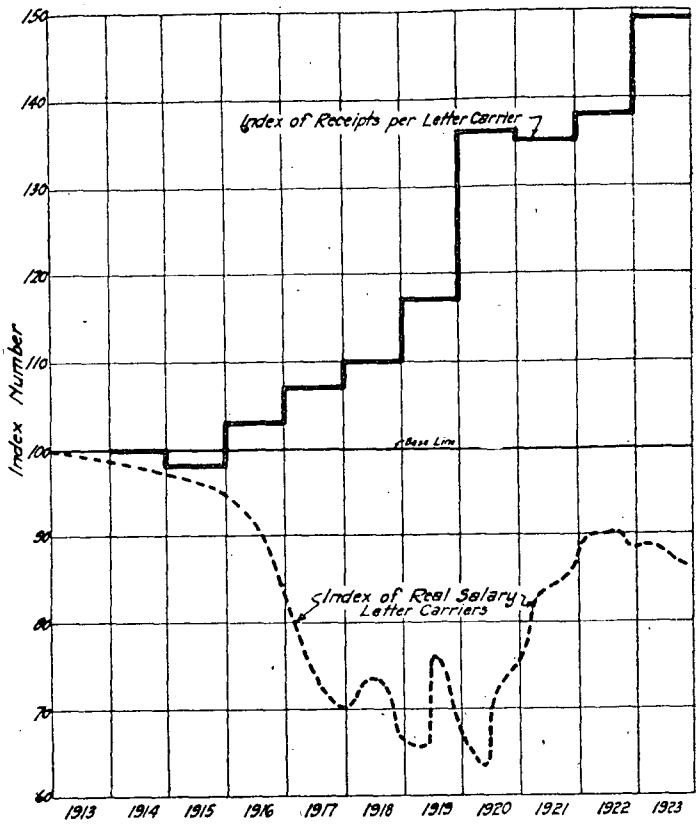
ROBERT W. BRUÈRE

POST OFFICE SURPLUSES AND DEFICITS COMPARED WITH POSSIBLE SURPLUSES IF RATES HAD BEEN RAISED AS MUCH AS WHOLESALE PRICES 1914-1923



The Labor Bureau, Inc., No. 2 West 43rd St. New York City.

INCREASE IN PRODUCTIVITY OF LETTER CARRIERS AND DECREASE IN LETTER CARRIERS' REAL WAGES 1914-1923



The Labor Bureau, Inc., No. 2 West 43rd St. New York City

48 Hours Shalt Thou Labor and Do All Thy Work

IT seemed probable that the bill limiting the hours of work for women in factories and mercantile establishments to 48 a week would pass the New York legislature this year. For years this bill has been a recurring debutante at Albany. But though to introduce it to the legislature has been easy, the poor thing has always been a wall flower. This year the comment in the corridors was that if the backers of the minimum wage bill would consent to its sacrifice, the 48-hour bill, possibly with some weakening amendments, would be put through. But in spite of the dicker the bill has failed again. A Democratic measure, it passed the Democratic senate only to meet defeat from a solid Republican majority in the assembly.

Popularity is an elusive thing, especially the popularity of legislation. Sometimes its roots, growing downward, take hold of hell; sometimes, perhaps due to an advanced case of social geotrophism, they start the other way. And to carry the figure further, if the 48-hour plant is going to grow and prosper pretty careful preparation has got to be made, for it is a delicate vegetable, flourishing only in the warm sun of general prosperity.

Outside the United States, before the war, conditions seemed to be exceptionally favorable. The world was rich, relatively speaking; the labor organizations were strong and the social conscience was pretty generally awake. The table below is a pleasant pattern of what was happening all over the world.

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COUNTRY	LEGAL HOURS PER WEEK FOR WOMEN
New Zealand	45
Peru	45
Poland	46
Latvia	46
Uruguay	48
Chile	48
Mexico	48
Austria	48
Belgium	48
France	48
Germany	48
Norway	48
Spain	48
Sweden	48
Italy	48
Portugal	48
Lithuania	48
Jugo-Slavia	48
South Africa	48
United States of America	No Federal Law

[Compiled from materials in The Labor Gazette of Oct. 1923]

And in spite of the Great War and the resulting tendency in Europe to permit both men and women to work long hours in order to make up for the destruction of money and goods, many of these laws still hold, although the prosperity which made the 48-hour legislation possible has gone, and Europe has gone back to pioneer conditions where material things seemed more important than human life.

And now we, after years of unsuccessful effort, are still without a law of our own, though the decision of the Supreme Court affirming the constitutionality of the New York state law prohibiting night work for women indicates that the state laws limiting the hours of labor for women would be upheld also. Why is it that advocates of the law, in spite of this setback, are still hopeful?

First, because we have—and know that we have—an advancing prosperity. We are rich and we know it. The cry of pioneer poverty in a new world is not heard any more. That women, or men either, need not be forced to work 10 or 12 hours a day—seven or even six days in a week—is admitted. It is obvious to most people that the country will roll along, the Rotary Clubs will flourish luxuriantly, the possibility of reducing the income tax will be favorably considered, the financial pages will record the piling up of the great surplus of production over consumption even if women in factories work only 48 hours a week. Since we are conscious of being still in the up-swing of prosperity, 48 hours a week for women is enough.

And then we have—and know we have—for the first time in our history a restricted labor supply. Europe, Asia, Africa and the Islands of the Sea are not pouring cheap labor through our ports. The quotas are absorbed into industry almost while they are landing.

And in this time of conscious prosperity when people are demanding new things—from shoes to skyscrapers—for which they are abundantly able to pay, and when the people who are able to make them are relatively few, it has been comparatively easy to organize these workers and vastly to increase their strength through unionization, so that it may come to a choice between a 48-hour week for women by law or by contract.

But all these things might be true—we might know ourselves rich, the workers might be organized and the demand for labor exceed the supply—and yet the 48-hour bill be defeated year after year—as it has been thus far. It is the slow process of social education on which we must rely. The briefs and the reports of investigations and hearings, the articles in magazines, the columns in the newspapers, the preachers who have preached, and the lecturers who have lectured, the long fights to get obscure cases through the courts have piled up into the formidable mass of information which has been relentlessly forced upon public attention for half a century. No one intelligent enough to vote can pretend to be ignorant any longer of what such things as long hours, night work, unsanitary housing and low pay do to human beings. We have learned to count the human as well as the money costs, and to be more careful how we spend this form of currency. We have learned—thanks largely to the social workers—that we as a people like other things quite as well as money.

So that is what it comes around to! The legislative popularity of such social measures as this 48-hour bill in New York—and there is one up in Rhode Island and another in Maryland—must be based primarily upon the material prosperity which makes it possible to put human welfare above property; upon a certain balance between the number of workers and the amount of work to be done—what might be called a satisfaction of the equation of demand and supply; on an organization of the workers sufficiently powerful to win what they want through collective bargaining, if it is not granted them by law; and on a stage of civilization sufficiently advanced so that the majority of the people understand something of the material basis of human welfare.

M. B. B.

The Dangerous District

IT was like being awakened from a twenty years' sleep to follow the testimony before Representative R. G. Fitzgerald's Subcommittee of the Committee on the District of Columbia during the hearing on the proposed District workmen's compensation insurance fund. There was the almost forgotten procession of victims whose claims had been thrown out of court by the ancient contributory negligence rule; who had been dogged by claim agents and cajoled into petty settlements because in their desperation something was better than nothing; who had died without compensation and yet spoke through their destitute heirs. It was such a spectacle as could not have been seen in most of the states since those barbaric days a generation ago when Crystal Eastman, Florence Kelley, John B. Andrews and their allies opened the long fight to take the industrially killed and wounded out of the catalogue of market commodities. For in the District of Columbia, Congress has never provided an accident compensation law for persons engaged in private employment; it has never even provided an accident reporting law. As a remnant of the dark ages in the matter of industrial injuries, the District of Columbia is unique.

Almost as shocking as this fact itself was the attitude of private accident insurance companies as revealed at the hearing. The bill under consideration provides for the establishment of an exclusive public fund "for the benefit of employes injured and the dependents of employes killed in employment," and for the administration of this fund by the United States Employes' Compensation Commission. Though Congress, under the bill, would advance money

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to inaugurate the fund, the money would in due course be repaid and, as in the cases of Washington and Ohio, the fund would be self-supporting.

In endorsing the bill, John B. Andrews, national secretary of the American Association for Labor Legislation said that from the beginning of American experience with accident compensation the association had maintained an open mind as to the comparative advantages of the various methods that from state to state had been offered employers for carrying their risk, but that the unique conditions obtaining in the District of Columbia had convinced them that here the public fund was the only satisfactory plan. Owing to the relatively small numbers to be covered by the insurance—approximately 75,000—there was no room for the commercial companies, whose competition with the public fund would, he felt, be destructive of the humane object of the proposed legislation.

This was weighty testimony; and since it had the unanimous support of organized labor, and the concurrence of many employers, it might have been expected to carry conviction. But the opposition of the private insurance companies as voiced by Representative Charles L. Underhill of Massachussetts, and by the broadcasted resolution of the United States Chamber of Commerce, was reasonable enough. It is natural that these believers in superlative virtues of private enterprise in this field of industrial accidents—sincere notwithstanding their pecuniary interests in the business—should resist a bill that would eliminate them from the accident field in the national capital and so, by Federal example, stimulate the movement to eliminate them everywhere. But it was precisely because they had been under attack since the state of Washington created its exclusive state fund more than a decade ago that one had expected to find their record in the District such as they might point to with pride.

Their record was presented to the Fitzgerald Committee by Father John A. Ryan of the National Catholic Welfare Council in the form of a study conducted under the direction of the department of sociology of the Catholic University. After reviewing the history of compensation legislation—the enactment of the first permanent state laws in 1911 by Washington, Kansas, Nevada, New Jersey, California, New Hampshire, Wisconsin, Illinois, Ohio and Massachussetts, and the subsequent enactment of similar laws until 42 states and three territories had placed them upon their statute books, the study digs into the District of Columbia. As there is no accident reporting law in the District, the facts had to be secured from the records of the District Board of Charities, newspapers, labor unions and the courts.

The number of private employes in the District is estimated at 100,000, about 75,000 of whom are in occupations normally covered by compensation laws. For government is not the sole business conducted in Washington; the District's industries include a steel mill, two paper factories, numerous laundries, street railways, as well as building construction and a railroad terminal. And since compensation is a stranger to Washington, injured employes are preyed upon by those strange old blackjack and hold-up men of the pre-industrial common law—"assumed risk," "contributory negligence," "fellow servant's fault." How these thugs deal with their victims, every one interested in the principle of automatic compensation used to know; but even for them, since most states now have compensation laws, time has dimmed the painful impression.

One of the suits which was lost was that of a carpenter. On July 23, 1919, a rope broke while a concrete shute was being hoisted above him, and the shute, breaking through the platform he was standing on, precipitated it from the third to the second floor with the carpenter underneath. He was hurt internally and the tendons of his leg were cut so badly that it withered. He had feared the danger and left the place of work only to be directed to return by the foreman. In February 1923, the court returned its verdict for the employer with costs against the plaintiff, because the carpenter had shown knowledge of the danger and had therefore "assumed the risk" and "contributed to the negligence." . . .

A pathetic instance was the experience of Mr. J. McD. On August 26, 1921, he was working on a scaffold when it broke down. He escaped with a compound fracture just above the ankle joint. He was in the hospital just one month, was unable to do any work for a year, and has been certified by two doctors as unable to resume his trade. In the hospital an adjuster offered him $700 and induced him to believe that his bills would be paid and an easy job provided. To his amazement "the employer stopped coming around with ice cream and fruit the moment my name went on what I understood now was a release." To help meet the living expenses of McD.'s wife and eight children, the local Carpenters' Union allowed him $70, and "total disability" was awarded by his national union.

To pay his doctor and hospital bills this man was forced to mortgage his home.

The irony of this record, the university investigators observe, "lends itself to a humorous touch now and then"; as in the case of T. R. who slipped on the wet floor of a restaurant where he was working. He was hurt badly enough to be laid up six weeks. Of course as an inhabitant of the District he received no compensation. But his hard luck didn't stop there. When he returned to the restaurant he discovered that he had been "fired because he broke a trayful of dishes when he fell"!

Fifteen years ago when few people appreciated the human inwardness of compensation legislation and America was without modern experience, one might have joined in wry laughter over such episodes. It is difficult to indulge in such humor today; indignation is the appropriate emotion. That such inhumanities persist, that they should have their principal scene in the national capital, involves all of us in shame. They account for the fervor of Father Ryan's concluding statement in which he said that speaking on his own behalf and on behalf of the department of the National Catholic Welfare Conference he was "entirely in favor of the Fitzgerald bill mainly because of the provision of the state fund, rather than insurance in the private casualty companies."

Congressman Fitzgerald conducted the hearing with admirable restraint under severe provocation, but with the vigor of a man determined to remove a national stigma. His bill, as Mr. Andrews emphasized, embodies the best of American experience, does justice to employers and the public, as well as to the blameless victims of industry. There is imminent danger that the present explosion of scandal in Washington may submerge it, so that it will fail of enactment at this session of Congress. As a matter of sheer American patriotism, the social service professions especially should make it their business to help Congressman Fitzgerald see his bill through. R. W. B.

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COMMUNITIES

The Social Worker and His Community

Here is the first of three striking articles in which Mr. Lindeman offers a fresh analysis of the subtle and baffling relationships between the social worker and the groups of which he forms a part—relationships that cry out for understanding lest the edge of service be dulled and the purposes of the group be clouded. To follow: The Social Worker as Statesman, The Social Worker as Prophet.

THE social worker's place in the community is more difficult to define than that of any other professional worker. The preacher, the teacher, the doctor are easily labeled and catalogued; their places in the community are defined by their specialized functions. Whenever these functions appear to impinge upon the domain of some other specialist, the impending conflict is readily resolved by a further restriction of function. Thus the law of the division of labor is preserved by a continuous narrowing of the sphere of influence of each respective specialist.

The social worker, by the very implications of his title and his task, is unable to effect so simple an escape. Whereas the preacher, the teacher, the doctor may at each moment of overlapping crawl further into his specialist's shell, the social worker must perforce extend his base of operations to include the whole of life. He deals with the total personality. The fundamental basis of his technique involves a conscious attempt to promote progress, and progress is measurable only in terms of status. Status includes the various modes according to which the individual expresses his personality on the economic, social, intellectual and moral levels.

The relation which the social worker bears to his community is further complicated by his anomalous position of liaison between the most-privileged and the least-privileged elements in the population. He must in some manner conspire to take from the surplus of those who have in order to relieve the sufferings of those who have not. In performing this perilous task, which possesses many of the ingredients of doubtful diplomacy, the social worker frequently evolves from the zestful personality imbued with sentimental idealism to the fatigued personality of case-hardened cynicism. The pathos of this evolution is revealed, not so much in the loss of feeling for human suffering as in the loss of faith in a process which relieves immediate suffering but does nothing to produce an actual sharing of the total personalities of the privileged and the unprivileged.

A clearly discernible movement of unrest exists among social workers. The younger workers at least appear to be discontented with the position which they hold in their respective communities. They are no longer satisfied to be mere go-betweens for the extremes of privilege, and if they are to be the conspirators of progress they must feel the necessity of a more wholesome and a more honest technique. The lack of dignity alone is sufficient basis for their claim to a more valid position in the community.

A thorough-going analysis, based upon adequate studies, of the relation between the social worker and his community is sorely needed. The observations which follow should be regarded not as a substitute for such analysis but rather as a prologue or introduction. In their present state these remarks have no further claims to integrity than are deserved by the author's personal observations and sincere interest.

For purpose of convenience, the relation which the social worker bears to the community may be profitably viewed from three angles, namely, as technician, statesman, and prophet. The classifications are obviously arbitrary and it is not presumed that these are completely separable aspects of the social worker's life. The approach is, however, useful as a behavioristic interpretation of a specialist's personality. The place of the social worker in the community will ultimately need to be defined in terms of what the community sees the social worker doing or what the community "thinks" the social worker is doing. In other words, a person is what he does.

From the outside, that is, from the community's point of view, a person also is what others "think" he is doing. It is probably true that what a person really is socially can be known only by resolving these two aspects of behavior.

The Social Worker as Technician

Symbolism plays so important a rôle in all of life that it is quite impossible to make arbitrary distinctions between a given personality as a symbol and as a function. No doubt the earlier social workers symbolized compassion, sentiment, feeling, and capacity to share in the suffering of others. The professionalization and organization of social work has, however, modified this relation. The trained social worker is no longer the embodiment of sentiment, but rather the symbol of a technique. He is the expert. All experts suffer a certain detachment from the main currents of life. Expertness is the modern symbol of autocracy, since the expert functions by virtue of what he knows, not by virtue of what he shares in knowing. The term "expert" in its current connotations has almost come to imply an exclusion of the experience of those who are not experts. In proportion as the symbol of expertness grows brighter, the warm, human relations grow dimmer. This is not to infer that an increase in expertness causes a decrease in respect by the community. On the contrary, the current tendency is decidedly favorable to an increase in respect. The expert becomes more of a personage as his expertness is cumulatively recognized, but

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he becomes less of a person. The symbolic heights of expertness are gained through the sacrifice of intimate humanness.

Graduations of expertness in social work are of course known to exist. The chief experts who direct the technique and the policies of organized charities are so engrossed in directing that they have lost all opportunity of establishing contacts with the people whom they serve. A factor which further alienates them from those whom they serve is the task imposed upon these officials of establishing relations with their contributors. Individual case workers may still share in the experiences of people, but the directing experts can secure such experience only by vicarious routes. The latter are more frequently found at the tables of those peculiarly American "soviets" known as Rotary Clubs and Chambers of Commerce where again they are chosen and regarded as symbols of expertness.

Leadership may also in a sense be regarded as a symbol. As a symbolic personality the social worker is endowed with leadership qualities which are not directly a reflex of his expertness. The community makes reference to him as a leader and in this reference there is a content which might easily be conceived to exist exclusive of the person's place in the community as an expert. So little is known concerning leadership and the leader, however, that it seems best to defer this point of discussion until some later date.

The Social Worker as a Functioning Personality

A complete analysis of the social worker as a functioning personality will not be attempted here. The distinction between a symbolic and a functioning personality implies that in the one case emphasis is placed upon what the person is and in the latter case, the emphasis is directed to the person's activities. The symbolic personality is just as potent as a factor in community life as the functioning personality. The symbolic personality plays a part in the community's generalized adjustments; the functioning personality plays a part in some specific adjustment. Viewed as a total personality, the symbol and the function are both essential to an adequate understanding of the individual.

The objective, observable activities of the social worker may be partially designated in terms of a person who is (a) a technician in the sphere of human relations and responsibilities, and (b) a rescuer from the evils of maladjustment. The form of symbolic language has been purposely retained in the designation of these functions in order to convey the assumption that even when social workers are engaged in activity a tendency exists to describe this activity in symbolic terms. The various attempts to define social work and the social worker are often stilted and unreal because of the failure to recognize the symbolic nature of personality.

The social worker as a technician in the sphere of human relations deals with the most delicately adjusted and the least stable elements in the known areas of life. This is so because of man's complexity and because of his conscious interference—individual and social—with the modes of adaptation and adjustment. A root-democracy exists in human nature which serves as a barrier to the smooth functioning of the technician who assumes to know the causes of human maladjustments and the remedies. The chemist, the engineer, the electrician—technicians who deal with non-human factors of nature may operate in almost total disregard of the ideas held by those outside their speciality. Not so the social technician. The very stuff out of which he builds his technology can be gained only by giving regard to the humblest human elements. The language-patterns, the attitudes, and the very modes of human intercourse with which the social worker approaches his task must somehow be drawn from the reservoir of the community's common life.

I once spent a day with a highly trained social worker who represents the present goal of technical proficiency. Later I heard this worker make a part-oral and part-written report to his colleagues in which he utilized a portion of the materials ("cases") dealt with on the former occasion. The contrast in his behavior as exhibited in language-patterns was, to say the least, striking. When dealing with his clients he was confronted with raw human relations which had reached that disturbing stage which is usually labeled "maladjustment": an estranged husband, an intractable girl, an unemployed widow with four children to support. In the presence of these actual, and—for the the persons concerned—tragic circumstances, the social worker appeared to be able to partake of and share in the humblest misfortunes. In the presence of fellow-technicians, these same clients became so many algebraic symbols with convenient labels and susceptible of ready classification. This experience led me to make further observations which revealed a distinct personality conflict in many social workers. The conflict centers about the fact that social technicians have become semi-conscious of the anomalous situation which calls upon them to be humanly sympathetic at one moment and expertly hard and technological at the next. The values which they learn to appreciate in the environment of their clients are not the same values with which they deal when in the presence of their colleagues at a staff conference.

Social work and its future is ultimately to be judged by the relation which exists between the social worker as a personality and the community as an evaluating group. This is a vital and fundamental relation; it cannot be fostered and nurtured into creative moods by an "externalism" which places too much emphasis upon activities, systems, records and mere technique. These phases of social work should be nothing more than the reflection of a warm, pulsating flux of human relations. The two aspects cannot, however, be separated since both are at varying times cause and effect. It will perhaps be expedient for present purposes to forecast certain modifications of technique which will inevitably be accompanied by a changing relation between the social worker and the community.

Humanizing the Expert

The function of the expert needs re-definition. Technical snobbery is less worthy than other forms of pretension since it constitutes a denial of intellectual democracy. Such denial is contrary to all good scientific tradition. The expert who hoards his skill and his knowledge does greater harm to human progress than the aristocrat who hoards his wealth. Sooner or later the expert must recognize the fact that the experiences of those whom he serves are essential to the progressive functioning of his expertness. The expert's experience and the experience of the community must somehow interpenetrate if real progress is to result. This is obviously an educational process in which the expert will be humanized and the people will be educated. The humanizing of the

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expert must also be considered as a part of his belated education.

This interplay of experience should, in the end, transform social work from a service of technical relief to a service of continuous community education. The foundations of this educational process will be the rich resources of human experience. If the product should eventuate merely as a series of joint activities which were hitherto impossible, this would in itself be a creative result. It should, however, lead much further. The social worker as a symbol of expertness might be forced to relinquish a portion of the deferential respect which is now accorded him by the community; in its place should arise the symbol of joint aspirations. The externalism of technical services would ultimately be supplanted by a spiritual objective which would cause the entire community to see life in more glorious terms than food and raiment. New aims would be created and in the achievement of these aims there would appear new values. This, the production of new values, is the mark of a progressive, creative people. E. C. LINDEMAN

What Happens on Your Street?

IT is no longer a novelty to be invited to a conference without set speeches, and even without set questions for discussion except the general topic. The idea is that for the purpose of getting a really animated discussion, leading to agreements which in turn will lead to common action, it is best to have the participants in the conference themselves decide what aspects of the subject interest them most and have them present these in the form in which they naturally come to them. With modifications, this method is also being applied increasingly to longer study courses. Such reliance on the interests and experience of the study group is, of course, not possible where the object is to put over or "sell" some definite idea of program. The propagandist will always have to insist on set speeches and expertly prepared texts.

A somewhat novel experiment along democratic lines is now being carried out by the Commission on Race Relations of the National Conference on the Christian Way of Life. The object of this commission is to encourage and assist inquiry into the nature of the relationships between different racial and national groups in America with a view to the discovery of such specific measures as may be needed to conserve good will, remove misunderstandings, make for better adjustment and avert conflicts. Hitherto, in such an undertaking, it has been customary to call in an expert to make a survey, to present a logically worked out scheme, and to recommend how the various problems should be met. The method of this commission is different. It believes that problems of race relations are problems of mental attitudes, and that it is more useful to find out what people of all walks of life *think* are problems in which race is involved than to make ex cathedra pronouncements as to what problems are biological, economic, concerned with historical animosities, with differences in cultural traditions, or falling into other such ready-made classes. It is therefore concentrating its efforts on gathering records of actual experience and submitting these to analysis and study—again not only by experts in social psychology but by all sorts of people of intelligence and good will.

Thus the commission is promoting at present a unique educational experiment: the building up of a study course by the same people—men and women, young and old, native and foreign-born, white and black and red—who later on will be asked to make up the student body.

Any one who has come in contact with a problem of race adjustment is asked simply to tell what happened. And the bulk of these happenings will make up the material of the study course. In this way, stories that illustrate a common form of discrimination against, let us say, Orientals, in one part of the country, will be placed side by side with stories of a similar nature in another section where, however, the sufferers are some group of South European immigrants or American Negroes. Too often people engrossed in a particular problem of group relationships consider it unique and question the ability or right of those in other sections of the country who have had no part in the experience of theirs to help in its solution. To find their story repeated with slight variations by some one with a similar problem in a totally different racial environment will be an eye-opener.

Again, there are many ways of tackling the same problem in group relationships. The commission does not propose to set itself up as an adjudicator between the different forms of action; but rather to tell of the various experiments in such graphic detail as may be necessary to visualize them and let those who are studying and discussing these records in all parts of the country report what *they* consider the most practical solutions and those most likely to lead to a finer spirit of mutual tolerance and fellowship between the different racial and national groups. And this is not merely a gesture; no agency or specialist today is possessed of a wide enough range of information to be able to say with certainty what an institution devoted to the welfare of native Americans should do when the complexion of the neighborhood is changing and the old constituency is moving out; or how in practice (it is easy enough in theory!) the friction can be avoided that so often comes when colored families purchase homes in a white neighborhood; or how the cultural differences between different national groups living in the same neighborhood can be bridged most quickly and effectively.

Facts Wanted

THE Commission on Race Relations of the National Conference on the Christian Way of Life invites any one who has come in contact with a problem of race adjustment to tell of that experience exactly as it has come to him, whether it be a single incident witnessed in the street or a long-continued episode with intricate problems in the solution of which he has felt some concern. Where the mention of names and places is likely to cause injury or embarrassment, they may be suppressed and the circumstances be disguised in other ways necessary to prevent identification. Each story should be complete in itself, with as much detail as may be necessary to make it clear. Sometimes, to give more color to the narrative, it may be possible to reproduce conversations or to describe the environment that is influencing the attitude of this or that group or person. Such contributions should be addressed to The Inquiry, 129 East 52 Street, New York.

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By putting questions such as these up to people of the most varied experience concretely and realistically in the form of telling incidents, the commission is combining functions of research and of education in a way that is certainly democratic; how effective it will be, of course, remains to be seen.

But this is not the whole plan. With the two functions named it is proposed also to combine that of social action (remedial, preventive, conservational, as the case may be). Like the Councils and Committees of Race Cooperation in the South which have been so remarkably successful in stimulating cooperation of white and Negro in concrete projects of community betterment, the commission believes that the best kind of education is that of experimental doing. So the study course—and eventually it is hoped there will be study courses adapted to the special interests of different types of organizations, such as women's clubs, labor unions, church federations, Rotary clubs, industrial managers associations, parent-teacher associations, Bible classes, student associations, and the like—is regarded merely as an introduction to local search for parallel situations, with an emphasis in discussion on the solutions of the local problems and those parts of the solutions in which the members of the discussion group, either as a group or individually as members of other groups, can take effective part.

But that lies in the future. The immediate task is that of collecting enough material for one general study course composed entirely of stories of actual experiences. To this the readers of this article are earnestly invited to make their contributions.

B. L.

The Philanthropic Taxpayer

This is the concluding article of Mr. Norton's series of sketches of social finance

THE four cities whose social revenues we have considered in previous articles illustrate the wide variation in the proportion of the total budget for social work which is supplied by tax revenues. Detroit gets from tax funds 38 per cent of a budget of approximately $13,000,000; Cincinnati 21 per cent of a total of $6,750,000; Cleveland 12 per cent of $10,850,000 and Boston 10 per cent of about $14,500,000.

The whole subject of tax revenues as a source of support for social work is heavily befogged.

We cannot hope here to do more than touch the high spots of this field of bitter controversy. We may begin by examining the thesis, apparently held by many social workers, that there is a well defined dividing line between the activities of the government and those of private social agencies. The scholars draw the line thus: the government can safely be entrusted with the established processes of social work, but experimental activities should be undertaken by private philanthropy. Some professional social workers limit the possibilities of government action more narrowly, asserting that enterprises which require a delicate social technique and human sympathy, notably case work, cannot be carried on successfully by the government and should be left to private initiative. Theirs is a pragmatic limitation, based upon experience and upon their devotion to a high ideal for social practice.

The simplest way to test these theories is to find out what the government is now doing in the field of social work and how well it is doing it. If it has broken these bounds and successfully, neither objection is valid. Looking the country over with this thought in view, one is amazed at the penetration of government into practically every department of social endeavor except that of militant propaganda. To answer those who think that the government, because of its bureaucratic organization, cannot undertake experimentation, we have only to point to the many health departments which are constantly experimenting with problems of social medicine; to many of our state and county governments carrying on extensive experimentation with new forms of relief and family welfare work under new names; to municipal, county and state units which have entered the field of psychiatric social work, admittedly highly experimental; and to the national, state and municipal governments which are trying new ways to help the people occupy their leisure time. If it were possible to cast up a balance sheet and compare the amount of social work experimentation carried on by government and private initiative, we should probably find that the government column was the heavier.

Applying this same measuring stick to the theory that the government should not enter into those phases of social work which require the use of a flexible social technique coupled with human sympathy, we find again that it has already done so on a large scale. There are a number of cities whose relief and family case work is administered by the government. Although the mother's pension movement, when it was sweeping the country, denied its parentage, it is essentially an offspring of family welfare stock and an own sister of the private case-working society; it came into existence for the simple reason that there was more work than the private case-working agencies could finance. Theories notwithstanding, the pressure of need burst the stricture of private funds and put the relief workers back where their ancestors operated—in the government. Blind pensions, soldier's rehabilitation, even social insurance so far as it has gone, are part and parcel of the same trend. Private relief could not finance the job which its own educational processes had unfolded in bigger and bigger pictures.

The aged poor, the insane, the feeble-minded, the misdemeanant, the felon, the epileptic, the incurably sick, have by common consent been accepted as objects of government care. The entrance into the government of public health nurses, health educational programs, displays, clinics, and hospitals is too well known to dwell upon. No one has denied the right of the government to deal with delinquent children; and the state-wide program for dependent children carried on by the commonwealth of Massachussetts and some other states is a significant assumption of responsibility.

Practically all forms of human helpfulness are today carried on by the government in various parts of the country and in ever-widening circles.

We still need to answer the question as to whether the government can do as well as private agencies, or well enough, those forms of social activity which call for that fine mingling of human sentiment and human wisdom needed to restore broken individuals and families to a position of relative normalcy. This question, if not satisfactorily an-

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swered, should put a brake on the process of placing social work under government finance and control. I am inclined to think the answer has not yet been written, or at least has been written only in part. Probably the government is now giving a quality of service as good as that rendered by private philanthropy, especially in family welfare work and group recreation. One would hardly expect it to be otherwise: the spiritual and intellectual growth of the body politic has not kept pace with that of the social work profession. Nevertheless, the advocates of this view have not as strong a case as appears upon the surface. The weakness of their argument is that the quality of private work from which the comparison must be drawn is not high enough to excite much pride. Private work like government work is ragged in quality—good here and poor there. Conceding that the quality of government work is on the defensive, it does not follow that the government of the future is incapable of improving the quality and developing and maintaining as high standards as the average of private work. The truth of the matter is that all government in America is still in an experimental stage. A people of such transcendent individualism have yielded only in the most grudging fashion to that social discipline which is government. They have viewed it as an opportunity for personal advantage and not an opportunity for common service. There are signs that this view is being changed and will, some day, be completely changed. Responsibility for social work standards in the government lies with social service professionals. Whenever they are able to convince the public that they have a specialized method requiring a selected personnel, adequately trained; and whenever they are willing to transfer this talent to the government and to insist on filling government positions with selected, trained personnel, they will meet with the same success that the nursing and teaching professions have won.

Social workers must make up their minds that the growing requirements of their calling are carrying it further and further into government. This process cannot be stopped; the needs of social work are outrunning the possible supply of money from all other sources of revenue; must necessarily draw larger and larger support from tax funds.

A Government Monopoly?

There are some political scientists and harassed givers, indeed, who are demanding that all social work be maintained by government. We need to oppose this view with just as much vigor as we champion the thesis that governments should share the responsibility. Social work is more than a technology and more than a system. It is a leaven in the spiritual life of the country. It is a lubricant in the mechanical processes of daily existence. To conceive the government as the whole of the social structure is to conceive a national life narrowed, dwarfed and withered. Life is more than politics. It transcends government. And the reflex action on the lives of the volunteer participants in social work is so valuable in resuscitating the haggard spiritual capacities of the people that we must not restrict the right of the individual to practice privately those things which, because they are helpful to his neighbor, are good for his own soul. We need private philanthropy, and we shall always have it. So while we admit that government activity is bound to permeate all fields of social work, we do not admit that the ultimate source of revenue for all social work is the tax dollar.

How far may we reasonably expect to lean upon this particular source of revenue for the extension of social endeavor? The matter is not as simple as the voluntary gift, client earnings or the securing of endowment funds. The competition for a share in the tax dollar is immensely wider and keener. Methods of taxation are more complex, less understood, and more artificially controlled.

Consider for a moment the competition. The last seventy-five years have seen a thousand inventions which have profoundly affected government. The automobile is a clear example. With its coming the old dirt roads had to pass. Solid road beds, with gravel, macadam and cement surfaces, have taken their place, at enormous initial cost to government, and greatly increased costs of maintenance and upkeep. It has created a big, expensive police problem. It is forcing municipalities into a new phase of city planning which will consume millions before it is done. It is leading the state governments in particular into new recreation and conservation programs. Electricity, modern plumbing, quantity production in manufacture, and discoveries in medical science—hundreds of other new factors have affected government costs.

Note the result in the city of Detroit, admittedly well governed for many years. In 1856 there were 19 activities carried on by the city government at a per capita cost to the taxpayer of $3.85. In 1921 that number had been increased to 184 at a per capita tax of $42.62. Now the tax payer instinctively resists increases in the tax rate. He would rather listen to the politician who shouts "Cut the taxes" than to the statesman who reasons "I'll give you what you want but you'll have to foot the bill." In an attempt to get what we want and still postpone the evil day of paying for it, we have recently used the bond issue to finance improvements until it has almost become an abuse. From 1851 to 1921 the per capita debt in Detroit rose from $18.71 to $93.06. Someone has recently estimated from census figures that the indebtedness of all cities of more than 100,000 population is $135.38 per capita. The rising tide of interest on bonds of municipalities, counties and states, if continued at the present rate, will at no distant date become a threat in itself, and will operate to check our habit of projecting costs of government into the future.

Three Hurdles

The social worker then who is trying to put more human service into government is met by three increasing obstacles; first by a growing competition with other projects; second a resistance from the tax payer which will be more marked in a few years than it is now; and third an approaching peak load of bonds, which by automatically shutting off a source of revenue for necessary improvements increases the competition for current revenues.

Yet the country can well afford to have what it needs in the way of government service. It is apt not to get it in the immediate future unless we begin to write an intelligent plan into our whole chaotic system of taxation. Some new foundation looking for a job can well afford to tackle a thorough untangling of the taxation snarl as one of the real social needs of the hour. There was a time when the federal government kept off the preserves of the other

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units, but not now. Witness the income tax snarl; and witness also the conglomerate assessments of estate and inheritance taxes, which if a man's operations are particularly wide-spread are apt to fall upon his heirs from five or six different quarters. There are many, many nuts in the tax basket which only research, unmixed with politics, can crack. For certain types of permanent improvements we seem to be drifting towards some expansion of the special assessment plan which is tinged with the unearned increment theory. Sound theoretically, the method is still an uncertain resource till we can learn whether we can put it into practice successfully and how. In recent years we have been drifting more and more into the practice of charging fees for service rendered and I suspect we can drift much further without injury to anyone.

This may seem to have nothing to do with financing social work. It has much to do and it is extremely pertinent. If the social program is to expand—and I believe it must—it will have to turn to the government for more and more of its financing. Private funds do not flow fast enough. But the social program is in competition with an increasing number of other expanding programs looking also to government for support. The pressure of all these programs against antiquated schemes of taxation, jumbled and ill-understood, many of them with restrictions in producing revenue, calls for an intelligent inquiry and an intelligent reconstruction. If they will begin thinking, talking and agitating the matter, social workers can start the proceedings that will bring that inquiry and reconstruction to pass.

WILLIAM J. NORTON

THE COMMUNITY CHEST, The Survey reported recently, has been adopted at Smith College. Frances A. Thomas informs us now that the Scudder School in New York City has enthusiastically adopted this plan of pooling student gifts. The school heard Allen T. Burns of the National Information Bureau discuss the city-wide type of organization and after several weeks of ferment devised its own plan, with a community chest council elected to represent all the four departments of instruction. March 10 to 14 came the "drive," with mass meetings, speeches, thermometer and all. "The response was not absolutely unanimous, of course. Some students felt that they preferred what seemed to them more personal giving. But minority opinion was respected" and the chest was nevertheless filled. "The students like the plan because it does away with constant appeals," Mrs. Thomas writes, "because systematic giving is in line with their work on household budgets, because they realize it is a bit of educational experience they can carry back to their home cities, and because, apparently, they like the appeal to intellect rather than emotion involved in the community chest idea."

"WHAT CAN BE DONE," asks John Barton Payne, chairman of the American Red Cross, "to check slaughter and injury by automobiles? In 1923 about 15,000 people in the United States were killed, and some 200,000 injured so badly they were sent to hospitals. This alarming destruction of life by automobiles is on the increase year by year. This is almost as disastrous as war! What is the remedy? Is this a call to the American Red Cross? Suggestions are invited." There is one obvious defect in the ordinary safety measures now in use: traffic signals vary widely in different parts of the country, so that a green light may mean "stop" in one city and "go ahead" in another. As a second's delay in the driver's recognition of the meaning of a signal may lead to trouble, it is evident that uniformity of traffic signals is of great importance. The American Engineering Standards Committee, through a sub-committee of experts, is now drafting a standard code, based on technical researches into the accepted use, visibility, and relative contrast of various colors, which after thorough study and criticism should form the basis for uniform procedure throughout the country.

THE YEAR beginning May 1, 1924, will be one of self-examination and rivalry on the part of Wisconsin communities. The Wisconsin Conference of Social Work announces a state-wide Better Cities Contest for the smaller cities—those of the first class are barred out—in which the awards will be based upon "superiority in educational facilities, home and family life, library equipment and use, recreational facilities and participation, industrial working conditions, community health, public and private welfare work, etc." The standards of measurement will be developed and applied by staff workers from various departments of the university and the state government. The contest is a direct descendant of a similar affair held in Kansas ten years ago, and first cousin to the County Achievement Contest promoted by Berea College in Kentucky, which closed on December 31, 1923.

BETWEEN the classroom where "government" is studied and the propagandist group fighting for a piece of legislation there is usually a great gap; the classroom may have the better of it philosophically, but the lobbyist and his constituents are rather closer to reality. A course offered by Professor Arthur Macmahon in the extension division of Columbia University, dealing with Pending Legislation at Albany, is an ingenious and hopeful effort to bring the day-by-day processes of the state legislature within hailing distance of intelligent analysis. "The purpose of the course is to reveal, by a running analysis of pending bills, the outstanding problems, conflicts and results of the legislative session . . . the conclusion will be given to a discussion of possible improvements in legislative procedure, and to a suggestion of procedure for citizen committees."

ONCE AGAIN the South End Almanac has fluttered its way into the neighborhood consciousness of the South End of Boston (see The Survey, March 15, 1923, p. 779). This year it specializes in brief but comprehensive statements which seek to interpret the work of the social agencies of the district. The Family Welfare Society, for instance, issues this very inclusive and significant invitation (the italics are ours): "If you are carrying burdens heavier than it seems you can bear; if you have lost husband or wage-earner, are out of work, need a loan; are worried about health, old age, the children's companions or their future; *if you find it difficult to get along with other people, or to understand husband, wife or children,* consult the Family Welfare Society."

THE REFERENCE in The Survey for January 15 to the conferences on office procedure of social agencies in Philadelphia spurs Elwood Street, of the St. Louis Community Council, to call attention to the fact that the Friday Club of St. Louis, made up of social service executives who meet weekly at lunch, is discussing this year a series of topics ranging very closely over the field of operating efficiency.

NO LESS than 30 playgrounds in towns and cities of less than 15,000 population have been opened as a result of the direct gift or of the advice and aid of the Harmon Foundation's division of playgrounds since it began work in 1921. To tell folks in general what the foundation is doing, both in promoting playgrounds and in making student loans, it has begun to publish a News-Bulletin.

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HEALTH

The First Year of the Sheppard-Towner Act

THE Sheppard-Towner Act, more correctly called "An Act for the Promotion of the Welfare and Hygiene of Maternity and Infancy," is one of the most important social measures ever enacted by Congress. Its early history is one of many difficulties that were met and overcome. The act was first introduced in the Sixty-Fifth Congress by Congressman Jeanette Rankin but failed to pass. It was reintroduced in the Sixty-Sixth Congress only to suffer a similar fate. It was finally passed by the Sixty-Seventh Congress on November 21, 1921, and signed by the President on November 23, 1921. The funds for the administration of the act were not available until April 1922. There are few instances where any type of national legislation has received the endorsement of so many groups of citizens. The proponents of the act placed on record a statement of the results that might be reasonably expected from its enactment and by the degree in which its administration meets these promises the success or failure of the act must inevitably be judged.

The ultimate object of this act is the reduction of the sickness and death-rates of mothers and babies. These rates are not yet available for 1923 and therefore cannot be used in comparison with the rates for 1922. Even if they were, such a comparison would be of doubtful value, for definite and concrete returns particularly of a statistical nature can hardly be expected from any complex national social or health legislation in its first year's enforcement. This first year's work has been of necessity largely a time of organization but as a result of that organization there has already been a measure of achievement which the Children's Bureau can present without apology. That so much has been accomplished within so short a time is a matter for congratulation to the various state directors, to Dr. Anna E. Rude, the director of the Division of Maternal and Infant Hygiene in the Children's Bureau, and to the other officials who have made this possible, and to the people who were largely responsible for the passage of the act.

What the Act Provides

The main features of the act are: (1) Federal financial aid to the states, this aid to be matched in part by the states. (2) The administration of this aid by the Children's Bureau acting under the Federal Board of Maternal and Infant Hygiene composed of the Chief of the Children's Bureau as chairman, the Surgeon General of the United States Public Health Service and the United States Commissioner of Education. (3) The application of such aid to the problem of reducing maternal and infant mortality and protecting the health of mothers and babies, and (4) the vesting in the states of complete authority to initiate and to administer plans subject to approval by the Federal Board of Maternal and Infant Hygiene.

The funds available to the states under the appropriation for the year ending June 1922 were $490,000 and for the year ending June 1923, $1,240,000 to be distributed as follows: (1) a direct grant of $5,000 was to be made to each state accepting the provisions of the act; (2) of the other $1,000,000 for the full fiscal year ending June 1923 and the proportionate amount for the year ending June 1922, not more than 5 per cent was to be used for the expenses of federal administration, part of the balance to be apportioned to the states and granted if matched dollar for dollar by state appropriations on the basis of an additional $5,000 to each state and the remainder pro-rated to the states on the basis of population.

WHAT SHEPPARD-TOWNER MEANS

The establishment of state-wide work for maternal and infant welfare in 41 states

The stimulation of public opinion as to the necessity for this type of work

Increased attention to the control of the practice of midwives

The organization of maternal and infant welfare centers

Increased cooperation from the medical profession

The state and community support of lay organizations

Increased employment of public health nurses

The stimulation of localities to match state funds and thereby solve their own maternity and infancy problems

The Share of the States

During the first three months of its operation forty-two states accepted the provisions of the act, twelve by legislative enactment and thirty through the approval of the governor, pending the next regular meeting of the legislature. Of the six states not cooperating in 1922 and during the first half of the fiscal year of 1923, the legislatures of Louisiana, Massachusetts, New York and Rhode Island met and did not accept. By the end of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1923, all state legislatures had met and forty had accepted the terms of the act. The eight states that are not cooperating are: Connecticut, Illinois, Kansas, Louisiana, Maine, Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Vermont.

During the period covered by the report, thirty-three states which have accepted federal funds have made definite increases in their own appropriations for the promotion of maternity and infancy work. Six states have continued

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to appropriate the same amount and two, California and New Jersey, have decreased their appropriations, California as part of a general economy program in all state departments, while New Jersey deducted from the amount available from the federal funds the appropriation the state had been making for its Division of Child Hygiene.

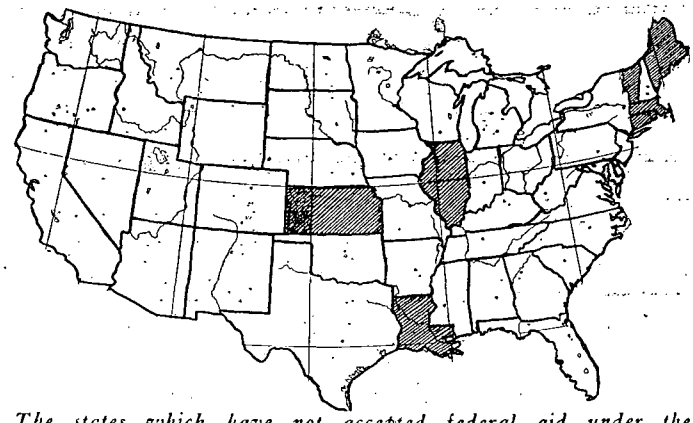
The administration of the provisions of this act in the states has been mainly dependent upon the size of the appropriation and the extent of the territory to be covered. It is interesting to note in this connection that while the act makes no mention of any discrimination in the expenditure of the allotted funds, there has been a tendency throughout the country to concentrate upon rural problems in the care of mothers and children rather than to make any expenditures in the larger cities. Such a course meets a need hitherto unfilled, for practically all of the larger cities are carrying on some form of maternal and infant welfare work by virtue of their own appropriations. The county as a unit for this health work is being adopted by an increasing number of the states. In many, the federal and state funds are used in matching county appropriations, the money being usually applied to the furtherance of county public health nursing.

How the States Function

In order to appreciate the extent of the work which has been stimulated by the act, it is interesting to consider briefly that part of the report that deals with the way in which the states are carrying out its provisions. Twenty-three of the forty-one states cooperating on June 30, 1923, (56 per cent) reported full-time physicians on their staffs, eight states reported part-time physicians only and nine did not employ physicians. Every state reported that it employed at least one public health nurse. Pennsylvania and New Jersey employed respectively 146 and 83 nurses, devoting part of their time to maternity and infancy work. Alabama, Delaware and Mississippi report the next largest numbers of nurses employed. Fourteen of the states employing full-time nurses have in addition from one to thirty-nine who are doing part-time work for mothers and babies. Only two states are employing dentists under the provisions of the act. These are Idaho and Virginia. California, Delaware and Georgia report the employment of dental hygienists. Volunteer service from dentists and dental hygienists was reported from several states. Some of the states reported the employment of social workers, community organizers, inspectors, health teachers and dietitians.

The activities of the states were, as a general rule, first directed towards the education of the public, since the success of the work was to a very great extent dependent upon its understanding, response and cooperation. It has been impossible to compute the total number of lectures, demonstrations, exhibits, the use of moving pictures and other general educational health activities that have been carried on, but there is not a state that does not report some definite work of this type. In a few states the work has been left to the individual contacts made by the county or community nurse. Work in these states has naturally developed more slowly than in communities where a general campaign of health education has been carried on.

Twenty-five states reported that they were using booklets, pamphlets or letters devoted wholly or in part to prenatal care. The majority of the states are using the bulletins of the Children's Bureau but a few have issued excellent leaflets of their own. Many state directors of child hygiene have compiled bibliographies on all phases of infant and child hygiene for lay readers and have arranged with the state librarians to furnish books on these subjects. The use of serial prenatal letters has been increased and they are now being sent out by many states. One state increased its list to whom these letters were sent, between February and November, from six hundred to two thousand. In Minnesota a definite study course in the hygiene of maternity and infancy is being conducted as a correspondence course for individual mothers or as a group study course in connection with women's clubs.



The states which have not accepted federal aid under the Sheppard-Towner act are shaded. In Maine the governor vetoed the acceptance act passed by the legislature; in Louisiana, Illinois and Kansas one house of the legislature voted for acceptance; in Connecticut the last legislature instructed the health department not to accept the funds available

Talking Health

Thirty-six states reported infant health conferences and thirty-one states reported maternity conferences or instruction. Nineteen reported the organization of health centers and twelve the organization of maternity centers. Those states that were doing educational work for the first time seemed to feel that conferences for the pre-school child offered the best and sometimes the only means of approaching the expectant mothers.

Space does not permit a complete account of the establishment of maternity centers in the various states but the wide-spread interest and activity in this direction are striking features of this first year's work. Development of work for the expectant mother has hitherto been slow and the extent of the efforts being made in this direction is an encouraging indication of a possible marked reduction in the present high maternal death rate. Pennsylvania reported the establishment of maternity centers on a state-wide scale. In this state the already established health centers for infants and children of pre-school age have designated certain days for maternity work. In the rural sections prenatal work is carried on by one hundred nurses acting in cooperation with the local physicians. Excellent work is being done in prenatal care in Wisconsin and Ohio.

The reports from the states show comparatively few developments for adequate care at the time of confinement, but the emphasis that is now placed on prenatal care will undoubtedly lead to more extended work in that direction. The better attention to the control and supervision of the

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practice of midwives is an indication of future improvement in the conditions surrounding many women who are confined in their own homes. Minnesota reports a new method for assistance to rural physicians in better home confinement care. The child hygiene division of that state outlined as a definite project the supplying of sterile emergency obstetrical packages in communities where the need exists. These are accompanied with directions for making all the articles. Appeals are made to civic, religious and social organizations to undertake the making and distribution of these packages in cooperation with the county nurse.

Midwives

One of the significant achievements of the first year is the focussing of attention upon the problem of the midwife. Thirty-one states have undertaken to investigate the extent and conditions of midwife practice. Six states do not register, examine or license midwives, but in all except one they are required to report births. The problem of the midwife throughout the country varies with the character of the population. The southern states show an enormous problem with their large numbers of aged Negro midwives while some of the northern states, notably New Jersey, report a much improved situation with excellent cooperation on the part of the foreign midwives. The 1920 occupational report of the Bureau of the Census enumerated only 4,773 midwives practicing in the United States. Thirty states, however, report that there are 26,627 midwives authorized to practice within their limits.

The importance of the relation of the midwife to maternal and infant hygiene is strikingly illustrated by the proportion of births attended by them. In one state midwives reported 73.5 per cent of the Negro births in 1921, in Mississippi 48 per cent of the births are cared for by midwives while another state gave a proportion of 33 per cent. On the other hand, in some states the problem of the midwife is negligible, as in Nebraska, where only 2 per cent of the births were midwife cases. Eighteen health officers have decided that training, licensing and supervision of midwives in their rural communities is at present the only means of solving the problem. In nine states supervisors of midwives have been appointed and in several others some type of instruction has been provided. As a result a number of states report not only a marked improvement in the type of care that the midwife gives but also that physicians are being called by the midwives much more frequently for abnormal and complicated cases.

Two states, New Jersey and New Hampshire, report a decided decrease in the number of midwives who are practicing. Improved reporting of births has been noticed as soon as the midwives are placed under supervision and one of the most encouraging results has been the decrease in the number of cases of ophthalmia neonatorum as an aftermath of the action of twenty-nine states making the use of a prophylactic by physicians and midwives compulsory.

The discussion of the passage of the Maternity and Infancy act has given fresh impetus to birth registration. Of the seventeen states cooperating which are not in the birth registration area, eleven have instituted special work to secure more complete registration. In Arkansas a state-wide test of birth and death registration was made by the combined efforts of the League of Women Voters, the Federation of Women's Clubs and the Parent-Teachers Association.

Twenty states report surveys or studies to obtain information concerning the welfare of mothers and babies upon which to base their state programs. The causes of infant and maternal deaths were made the subject of study in six states. Surveys of available qualified medical service and maternity hospitals were made by Connecticut, Idaho, Michigan and Indiana. Publication of data secured through these surveys has been distinctly beneficial in stimulating localities to a greater responsibility for the health of women and children.

Among the other important results of this work have been the splendid cooperation on the part of physicians, many of whom have given their services in promoting all phases of maternal and child care; the cooperation of lay workers through state and local organizations of both men and women; the inspection of maternity and children's homes (thirteen states reported work in this line); nutrition classes, reported by thirteen states; the use of "health-mobiles" and fully equipped railroad cars and many other activities of a similar kind.

The Children's Bureau reports as part of its administrative work, the distribution of literature; conferences and consultation by the bureau's medical staff; institutes for public health nurses held in sixteen states and new letters sent to the directors of the state divisions of child hygiene discussing methods of good practice and the way in which the various states had met and solved their problems. The bureau also undertook three definite lines of research; the first being the study of maternal and neonatal mortality, the second the study of the morbidity and mortality of early infancy and the third the study of maternity homes.

There is every reason for the advocates of the Sheppard-Towner Act to feel satisfied with this report.

S. Josephine Baker, M. D.

Are There Any Blind Black Babies?

SOME months ago the Blind Association of Mississippi decided that something should be done to help the blind Negro children of the state, and a committee was appointed to consider plans and to put its conclusions into effect. Remembering the crowded condition of the state institution for blind white children, and knowing that 54.4 per cent of all the educable children in the state were Negroes, the committee felt sure that there must be a large number of blind Negro children in Mississippi. The committee decided that the best way to help this most pathetically helpless group of people would be to organize a class in some kind of vocational training, since the State School for the Blind in Jackson does not receive Negro children for instruction.

Bura Hilbun, state supervisor of colored schools, always actively interested in helping the colored people of his state, took two members of the committee with him and went down to the Piney Woods School for Negroes in Simpson County. This school is one of the best of its type in the country and has a progressive, up-to-date principal. In consultation with the school authorities, Mr. Hilbun and the committee members decided to begin with one class of ten blind children, and arrangements were made

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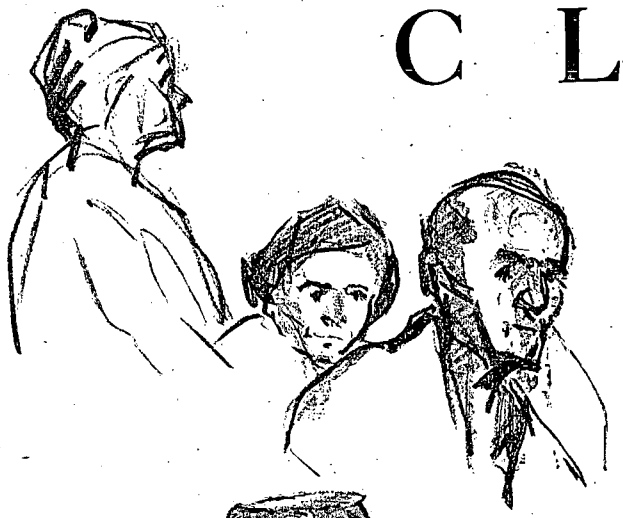
CLINIC

Drawings by
M. Topchevsky



The Michael Reese Dispensary, in the center of Chicago's Jewish market district, has thirty separate clinics for thirty kinds of trouble; 17,000 patients make a total of 73,000 visits in a year. On busy days, patients making second visits stream past the admission desk at the rate of one every thirty seconds. Mr. Topchevsky, a young sign painter artist who lives at Hull House, has watched these people going in and out, awaiting their turns; the sketches are from his notebook.

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to begin the work as soon as the students could be brought together.

Then they began looking about for the ten students. Mrs. Jones, the wife of the principal of the Piney Woods School, and at that time state chairman of the Colored Women's Federated Clubs, wrote to each club in the federation, asking for the names and addresses of blind Negro children. Mr. Hilbun wrote to his Jeanes supervising agents, twenty-five in number and representing as many counties, for the same information. Other members of the committee sought the names of blind Negro children through the Blind Association. Shortly after the search was begun, there was a meeting of the principals from the fifty county agricultural high schools of the state, and Mr. Hilbun in the course of a speech to these men asked them for the names and addresses of blind Negro children.

AS a result of all these investigations Mr. Hilbun obtained three names—not even half enough to start the first of the classes he proposed to organize. With his interest deeply aroused he went to Dr. W. S. Leathers, the executive secretary of the state board of health.

"Now look here, Doctor!" he said. "Where are the blind Negro children of this state?"

"Why, I can't just say," replied Dr. Leathers. "Come to think of it, I don't believe I ever saw one in my life. Why do you ask?"

Mr. Hilbun explained the situation and, growing more and more interested, Dr. Leathers decided to carry the investigation a bit further. He sent a letter of inquiry to 1,700 physicians, including the county health officer of every county within the state. He explained in this letter why he wished to locate these blind Negro children, and stated clearly that in case no answer were received he would take that to mean that the physician addressed knew of no blind Negro child, since he felt sure that any doctor who knew of such a child would be glad to report his or her name.

More than two hundred physicians answered by letter from all parts of the state, and of these one hundred and seventy wrote only to express their interest in the investigation, and their astonishment at the fact that they did not know a blind Negro child. Their answers ran like the following which were taken at random from the lot:

"There are none in my county. I am amazed to find this true."

"I never thought of this before, but I am certain that there is not one in my territory."

"I cannot recall ever having seen a blind Negro child. This is deeply interesting."

"I have an extensive Negro practice and a wider acquaintance, but I have never seen a blind Negro child."

"I have had a wide practice among Negroes for twenty years, but I have never seen a blind Negro child." This answer came from a delta town where the Negroes far out-number the white people.

When these letters first began to come, it appeared that they were not going to have a single blind Negro child reported besides the three they had already located, but after a time they got a few like the following:

"I know of one Negro boy who lost his eyesight as the result of a blow on the head."

"One Negro child in my county is blind from the effects of a powder explosion."

"One Negro girl in my territory is blind as the result of a gun-shot wound."

One doctor reported two Negro girls from the same family who were blind from congenital cataract. These girls have already obtained surgical treatment through the assistance of the State Supervisor of Civilian Rehabilitation and are no longer blind.

Another doctor reported a Negro boy who could not see in day-time but was able to see fairly well at night.

ALL told, thirty cases of blindness were reported by the whole state. In no case was there a report of infection at birth. In more than half the known cases, however, the cause of the condition was not given. Mr. Hilbun is continuing his investigation with a view to finding out the exact cause in each case, if possible. He estimates from the data at hand that not more than half the thirty cases reported could be the result of child-bed infection.

Whatever the detailed result, the big truth already is definitely established. There are practically no Negro children in Mississippi who are blind as the result of a preventable infection at birth. In other words, in all the 418,481 educable Negro children between five and twenty-one years of age, plus all those uncounted ones who are less than five years of age, in Mississippi less than twenty have been found who could possibly have been made blind by infection at birth. Not one of the blind Negroes of all ages in Mississippi known to Dr. M. L. Batson, superintendent of the state institution for the blind, can attribute this affliction to infection at birth, while of the white children in the school—the only white group for which statistics are available—nearly 17 per cent were blinded by ophthalmia neonatorum.

Nobody knows why this difference exists. Some doctors say that the Negroes, through generations of contact with venereal diseases, have developed a kind of immunity which protects the new-born baby's eye from the ever-present sources of infection. Others scoff at that, and insist that it could not be so. Some one suggested that maybe the infected babies die, but the doctors all say that could not be true for in that case the doctors would have heard about them. Anyhow, they will agree that the facts disclosed by this search for blind Negro children are certainly not in harmony with the generally accepted theory concerning the cause of a large percentage of the cases of blindness in white children.

KATE HUBBARD

Mental Clinics: Four Kinds

AS rapidly as we interest and educate the community in the preservation of mental health, we must provide the means of assuring assistance and relief to the recently-educated individuals who need it. Unless the development of clinical facilities be kept abreast of the educational program, this great movement of preventive medicine will soon spend itself in idle prattle and vain wailings, and innumerable sufferers will be left less happy and less efficient in return for their acquired knowledge.

Mental clinics, so called, have existed for a long time. In many instances, however, their actual value has been more apparent than real, and in general one does not hesitate to say that they have failed to accomplish the purposes for

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which they were organized. The reasons for their failure are fairly obvious. They are associated popularly with insane patients and state hospitals. Not infrequently they are housed in jury rooms, council chambers, school committee rooms, and other public meeting places in no way connected with medicine or a medical program. They have been held irregularly and infrequently. Often the clinics are regarded as of secondary importance to the other demands of the hospital to which they are attached. Frequently they incur the justified criticism that their reports, sent to the various social agencies, are of little practical value. Last, but by no means of least importance, is the attitude of the medical profession towards any movement that savors of state medicine.

Classification of mental clinics, and a careful effort to link them up with the special groups which each is intended to serve and the special resources of the community which can be of service in solving their varied problems, should go far toward overcoming many of these glaring defects. Such a classification should include four main groups: clinics for children of the pre-school age; clinics for school children; clinics for patients with incipient nervous disorders; and clinics for ex-hospital patients.

1. The clinics for children of the pre-school age can best serve the community when they are associated with some well recognized medical group, such as a community health association, a baby hygiene association, a baby health center, or one of the innumerable varieties of well baby clinics. It is important that these clinics should be developed in several different districts of the city and not operated under one central plant. The type of service which the habit clinic renders is still so vague and ill-defined in the minds of those parents who most need it that the clinics must be so situated geographically that they can be reached with a minimum amount of effort and inconvenience. It is also important that there be the closest possible affiliation with the settlement houses, nursery schools and kindergartens in the section where the patients live, and this is more easily accomplished by neighborhood clinics.

2. The clinic for the child of school age has resulted in Massachusetts from the law passed in 1919, which requires that backward children receive a thorough mental and physical examination and that special classes be organized when ten or more children are found who are retarded three years or more in their mental development. If only the letter of such a law were carried out, the clinics would be confined to making diagnoses, and their therapeutic value would be curtailed. However, if facilities for treatment are provided, the school clinic may take on a much more important function, and serve not only the mentally deficient, but the emotionally unstable child, and the innumerable cases of conduct problems as well.

3. In any plan for a state mental hygiene program, the clinic for patients with incipient nervous disorders might well take on the function of treating the cases referred by the school clinic. So far as is practical, this type of clinic should be associated with and become a part of a general hospital. When provision for early cases of mental illness becomes an integral part of the general hospital, like orthopedic, surgical and medical clinics, a most important barrier will have been removed which has prevented a multitude of mentally sick people from seeking advice and treatment at a time when it can do most good. The general hospitals will soon find that the services of a psychiatrist are indispensable in dealing with many of the vague and obscure medical and surgical problems, and psychiatry will broaden its scope if specialists in other branches of medicine are available for consultations.

Although insanity as such is quite clearly defined in the mind of the layman, the less severe mental illnesses, which are frequently quite as incapacitating, are still very hazy and obscure and little understood. For this reason, many of those individuals who need help, and are neither insane nor mentally deficient, can best be approached in relation to their other social problems, such as delinquency, dependency, industrial inefficiency, etc. A close liaison with other social organizations must be built up. These agencies are not particularly interested in diagnoses, but in the treatment which will aid in the rehabilitation of these maladjusted individuals, and it is the responsibility of the clinic to prepare and submit a plan that is not only intelligently conceived but practical.

4. For many years the clinic for the hospital patient on visit has been recognized as a most useful adjunct for the community care of a selected group of mentally-disordered persons. With a well organized social service department, the state hospitals are able to discharge many patients whose stay in the institution otherwise would have been prolonged. How well these individuals are able to adjust themselves in the community depends in large part upon the complexity of the environment to which they return, and the understanding that the family and friends have of the patient's limitations. Much of this after-care work must necessarily be done by the social worker, whose training and education have fitted her not only to understand the adjustment of social problems, but the personality of the individual with whom she has to deal. These clinics need not be held more frequently than once a month.

The type of service rendered in all these types of mental clinics demands invariably a physician qualified by training and experience to deal with symptoms which often are obscure, and occasioned by mechanisms of great complexity. Frequently these patients are surrounded by conditions and circumstances which are so complicated and unusual that they are quite beyond the comprehension of the inexperienced worker. Often conclusions must be drawn and diagnoses made on hurried examinations and insufficient histories. If mental clinics are to render an efficient type of service to the community, they must be staffed by well trained and experienced physicians. Unfortunately, however, both in mental and in general hospitals, those best qualified to deal with the most baffling mental and physical problems usually are kept in the hospitals to compile records on well marked cases of dementia praecox and arterio-sclerosis which are beyond therapeutic aid.

The success or failure of the effort which the state makes in caring for the mental health of its citizens will depend largely upon the foresight used in the development of facilities which can be utilized by those suffering from the early and incipient types of mental illness. Well organized out-patient clinics staffed by trained and experienced psychiatrists and social workers can do much toward solving this problem.

D. A. Thom, M.D.

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SOCIAL PRACTICE

The Border Patrol

IN the extreme southwestern corner of the United States the "border problem" is found in its most flagrant form. Certain American and Mexican citizens who are devotees of horse-racing and its attendant gambling have established this sport in an extensive way at Tia Juana, a Mexican town just below the border line. Gambling is illegal in California, hence horse-racing does not pay within its borders, but at Tia Juana it can be carried on legally, and yet be within easy reach of the American public. San Diego is the California city through which and from which the racing "fans" must seek this sport. These two municipalities lie twelve miles apart. This distance adds to, rather than lessens, the menace and attraction of Tia Juana for California boys and girls. A "joy-ride" over a smooth paved road adds zest to the adventure of "seeing the sights."

San Diego is, in truth, a doorway for all of southern California.—With our fine highways it is an easy run by automobile from Los Angeles or any other point south of the Tehachepi, a district containing well over a million people. On Saturdays, Sundays and holidays the main boulevards are almost solid processions of automobiles, largely headed for Tia Juana.

The problem as it has presented itself to San Diego citizens interested in civil welfare, deals not so much with the racing and betting, as with the accessories pertaining thereto. The little Mexican town has become the center of operations for people who are not desirable citizens in either nation, who manage dance halls, cabarets, gambling haunts and dens of vice of every variety, some of them unspeakably vile—and wide open.

Hence it came about that the social workers of San Diego sought some means of keeping adventurous boys and girls out of Tia Juana. The logical method seemed to be to have passports or permits required by the United States government for crossing the border line from one country to the other. Various efforts were made to secure such a ruling or the enforcement of the ordinary passport regulations. They have proved unavailing. The Department of Labor, which has control of immigration and emigration, could not see its way to ordering the use of such permits, although they had been required under the preceding regime.

The report that large numbers of minors were going to Tia Juana in the evenings was so persistent that the chief of the county probation office decided to investigate for himself. In the summer of 1922 he spent Saturday and Sunday evenings for several weeks with the traffic officers at the border line. Liquor flows freely in Tia Juana. To drive an automobile in California while intoxicated is a criminal offense, hence the county officials had found it necessary to post traffic policemen at the border to intercept drunken automobile drivers. Cooperating with these traffic officers, and acting with the consent of the higher officials responsible for their work, this probation executive was able to have all automobiles stopped, and to take the names and addresses of all minors, the number of the car and name of the owner. The minors were told they must go home; most of them willingly obeyed, for publicity was the last thing they desired—especially publicity at home.

So impressive was the information thus obtained that it was brought before the Committee of Public Health and Social Welfare of the Women's Civic Center.

This unusual committee consists of a nucleus of women from the Women's Civic Center plus an advisory board made up of about fifty prominent citizens, including all the officials of city and county who deal primarily with minors, delinquent or adventurous. It is in a sense a hold-over from the citizen's committee formed under the Fosdick Commission during the war, whose work was later carried on under the supervision of the United States Interdepartmental Social Hygiene Board. San Diego had the benefit of this assistance from the government because it had been chosen as a permanent site for a naval training school, a marine and an aviation base. Realizing the value of such a committee, the Women's Civic Center determined to continue it after Congress refused appropriations for the work of this board, and the Community Chest undertook to meet the expense of its trained social service worker and secretary. This combination of volunteer workers, constantly advised by officials, has demonstrated its unusual efficacy several times, but never more conspicuously than on this occasion.

A MEETING of the entire committee and advisory board was called on the evening of December 5, 1922. The probation officer presented his report. Various county officials and a federal immigration officer gave information as to their difficulties in dealing with the situation. After thorough discussion, the consensus of opinion was that if our federal government could not, or would not, handle the situation, a full-time probation officer ought to be placed on the border to intercept and turn back minors. As the local powers-that-be were present and understood the situation and the community interest behind such action, the position was created the next day but one, and the officer appointed at once. He began his work December tenth, five days after the problem was first publicly discussed.

This officer operates under a provision of the California juvenile court law for the detection and *prevention* of crime. The officer's report indicates that crime and debauchery are prevented in large degree. The legality of the work has been sustained by a court decision.

At the annual meeting of the committee in January 1924, the officer's report showed that the total number of minors interviewed at the border from December 10, 1922 to January 21, 1924 (a little over thirteen months) was 4,397; of these 2,739 were boys and 1,658 girls. All interviewed on their way down to Tia Juana were turned back, namely, 4,061; boys, 2,520, girls, 1,541. As the officer is only on duty eight hours, 336 had slipped across during his absence but were interviewed on their return. Of these there are

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records for 325; 202 were boys and 123 girls. These children were in a deplorable condition; 105, or over 43 per cent, were intoxicated to a degree of helplessness, while nearly all appeared more or less under the influence of intoxicating liquor. Of those almost or quite helplessly drunk, 78 were boys and 27 girls. If anything like the proportion of intoxication which prevailed among the 325 who succeeded in reaching Tia Juana would have occurred among the 4,061 who were turned back, the record of prevention is a striking one. And if some merely adventurous boys and girls had succeeded in returning with sober brains and undespoiled bodies, their minds would have been forever besmirched with memories of unforgettable scenes of vice. That there was grave danger in visiting these dens, even with an innocent intent, was demonstrated during the original investigations by the chief probation officer. As a result of this inquiry several persons were arrested for sex offenses, in a few cases very grave ones, against girls who were very young and unwilling victims. A drink or two of Tia Juana liquor frequently renders a girl incapable of caring for herself.

Reports of the number of minors intercepted at the border are sent each week to the probation office and to the district attorney, who appoints and maintains this special officer. It appears that these young people come from varied sections of the country, as well as from varied grades of society. The large majority, or 68 per cent, give San Diego city or county as their residence, 17 per cent come from other parts of this state, 4 per cent from other states and foreign countries. The boys who admitted they belong to the navy were 11 per cent. These percentages do not cover the total number of minors intercepted, because at times the congestion of automobiles is so great that it is impossible for the officer to complete his records. Among the children listed from San Diego county there are good, bad, and indifferent, but a depressing number prove to be high school and grammar grade pupils from both San Diego city and country towns who are "out for a lark."

As to the navy men, the chief probation officer of San Diego county writes:

> The question of the enlisted personnel of the navy going to Tia Juana is a very serious one, and one which is not at all shown in our report as to the magnitude of it . . . because the officer cannot get the names and addresses of all. We are constantly having young men from the navy who have spent their money at Tia Juana and come back intoxicated and commit crimes, and then come before the court either for misdemeanors or felonies. I have no doubt if a complete figure could be obtained from all departments handling the enlisted personnel, we should find a very astonishing number who had crossed to Tia Juana. . . .
>
> Unless something is done to close the border, I feel that the Naval Department should place a guard at the border to prevent the naval men crossing.

Follow-up work based on the officer's reports is carried on from the San Diego probation office. The drivers of all local cars containing minors, and the minors therein, are ordered to appear at that office and explain why they were going to Tia Juana. Often parents (usually mothers) are also summoned or voluntarily accompany their daughters. Most parents are greatly surprised to learn that their sons, and especially their daughters, are indulging in such escapades. Officials of other counties and states are notified of the boys and girls who have come to Tia Juana from their jurisdictions. This has proved valuable to probation officers throughout the state in apprehending runaways, and also violators of the Mann Act.

The district attorney reported at the last annual meeting of the committee that he felt that a second officer should be added. This suggestion was immediately approved by citizens and by the county supervisors who hold the purse-strings, and in a very few days he was appointed and on duty. Other border communities are adopting like plans. Calexico, in Imperial Valley, already has a "border officer" to prevent minors from crossing the street into Mexico.

While these efforts have great value in local communities, the problem is as wide as Mexico's northern border, and its solution should be a national one. The dry zone should be extended for fifty miles within Mexico's border, which would place such resorts beyond the easy reach of American youths; and, still more important, passports or permits should be required for passing in and out of the United States. Both these plans are under consideration by Congress and the Mexican government.

Our efforts to protect San Diego boys and girls have necessitated a good deal of correspondence with the Mexican government. In every case we have met with sympathetic and understanding response, especially from President Obregon. But as American citizens are responsible for a large portion of the worst vice conditions in Tia Juana it becomes a vexed international question.

MARY B. RITTER, M.D.

(Since this article was written the Department of Labor has issued an edict closing the border, for both automobilists and pedestrians, at nine o'clock at night. This ruling became effective March sixth, and at once had a marked influence upon the dance halls and dives of Tia Juana. Employes were discharged in large numbers as these resorts closed their doors when their patrons were forced to leave thus early in the evening. Credit for this action is due Congressman Phil D. Swing, backed by many local organizations, the churches of the district, and a petition signed by over four thousand residents. This "half-loaf" is gratefully accepted, but it is still hoped that more drastic measures will follow. M. B. R.)

Breaking the Poverty Circle

IN September 1914, the department of family welfare of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor published a pamphlet entitled "Shall Widows Be Pensioned?" The pamphlet summed up the results of a study the association had then made of its own work with families that had become temporarily dependent by reason of widowhood, "for the purpose of determining to what extent we were falling short in the service we are expected to render, and if such prove to be the case, to find ways and means of improving and increasing that service." As a result of the facts presented in this pamphlet, the Rockefeller Foundation made pledge to the association of $20,000 a year over a period of ten years, this amount to be used in the continuous care of a group of fatherless families, so long as they should be in need of such care.

During the nine years ending October 1, 1923, a total of 115 families, in which there were 470 children, were cared for through this fund. A report which aims to show what has been and what promises to be the return from this investment is now being published:

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Many of the families first brought under the allowance plan had been known to the association for some time previous. Later, as changes were made, the allowance plan of assistance was used on first acquaintance with the families. Then the process was as follows. The mother was asked, on her first call at the A. I. C. P. offices, to fill in a printed form which called for all the facts on which a decision might be reached as to her need for assistance, the amount needed, and the form it should take. Once the application was completed, the mother made affidavit to the facts before a notary at the A. I. C. P. offices. A call at the home by the visitor under whose care the family was to come followed quickly the making out of the application, also all the necessary calls upon the church, the schools which the children attended, relatives, and friends, the reason for this having been explained to the mother at the time of the office interview. In this way the visitor made first acquaintance with the children, got direct impressions of the home, and without hurry talked over with the mother the possibilities and plan for the days ahead.

An important part of the application blank is the proposed family budget, this showing all monthly income that might be expected in the family, and over against this the proposed monthly expenditures for rent, food, clothing, etc. One cannot discuss in this short article the methods used to determine these budget items. Once determined, the allowance granted was the difference between their total and the combined sum of income from any other sources. The allowance plan brought into the family life a definiteness and assurance which was wholly lacking in the earlier way of giving assistance in irregular, indefinite amounts. A study of the results of the two methods leaves no doubt that the latter contributed much to the removal of that stress and strain which tends to break both body and spirit.

Medical Examinations

No less important than the budget data is that part of the application blank which calls for the physical condition of each member of the family. In instances where members of a family have been attendant on department of health or other clinics, some of the necessary facts, with the patient's permission, may be gleaned at once. In general, however, the association has found it necessary to supplement this by examination at its own clinic, thereby satisfying itself of the condition of both the ailing and the presumably well children. All physical defects and the examining physician's recommendations for treatment are noted. Thus the obstacles to be overcome on the uphill climb to health become reasonably clear from the start.

One indication of results obtained in the way of improved physical condition of the children in these families is found in a memorandum submitted to the association by a physician who in July 1918 made a follow-up examination of all the children who had been under care for a year or more:

> I have just completed examining all of the children in the widows' allowance group and I thought you would be interested in having a little preliminary report concerning the results of the examination. I want to say that I was most agreeably surprised and impressed with the physical condition of all members of these families. The development of the children, the excellent state of nutrition, surpasses that of any group of children I have ever examined, both in my clinic work and in my private practice. Further, the degree of corrective work which has been accomplished with these children during the past two and more years is most unusual. Most of the children I find have obtained normal development for their age and height, and in several instances the gains in both weight and general development I found to be in excess of those in normal healthy condition. I can but feel that the marked improvement in the conditions of these children emphasizes and substantiates the fact which the association has mentioned so often in its Relief and Nursing Bureau reports during the past three years, namely, that good hygiene, good and sufficient food and corrective work are necessary to produce wholesome individuals and that intelligent relief work—by which I mean work which aims to put such families eventually and permanently on their feet—cannot be done in any other way.

As part of the health program, there was a definite plan on the part of the visitor to arrange for some outing in the country or by the seashore during the summer months for every family. The stay was usually a two weeks' period, though there are many instances of delicate children "held over" for extra time or returning later for a second two weeks. The association's own summer places were mostly used, the mothers going to Sea Breeze with the younger children, the older boys and girls finding place at the Boys' Camp and Girls' Farm. The very many references in the records to the improvement in general health as result of these outings, the actual recording of gains in weight, is convincing evidence that these outings were a telling factor in the upbuilding of health, a stimulus to mind and spirit.

Scholarships

The association made a beginning in permitting certain children to continue their education beyond the time when "working papers" were possible, giving up the old idea that the child must be pushed into the income-producing column of the budget at the earliest possible moment, and recognizing the value of two or more years of special training and education for some definite work. To 20 boys and 23 girls in these families such opportunity was given.

The continued assistance made necessary by not hurrying these children to work was granted in terms of scholarships, from the time the children reached such age and grade in school as would permit them to go to work. To quote from one of the several stories of these children:

> At the age of thirteen, February 1916, the girl Hilda had graduated from grammar school and had entered Commercial

DURING the ten years of path-finding work by the New York A. I. C. P., which Mr. Matthews here reviews, there has been much progress in legislation to provide assistance to widows' families from public funds. Forty-one states now have such laws. The city of New York is spending some $4,000,000 every year for that purpose through its board of child welfare. Ten years ago there was much difference of opinion even among social workers as to the need of such legislation. Today the principle has been accepted; the remaining differences relate rather to the method of administering these funds. Here the experience of the A. I. C. P. is significant. There are still agencies, both public and private, which cling to the old methods of granting assistance in small amounts from month to month, of giving out grocery orders. The routine medical and physical examinations, the stress on scholarship aid, which Mr. Matthews notes, are by no means general practice. The private agencies, relieved of much of the load they were trying to carry, have been enabled to improve greatly the quality of their work; conversely, public bodies have been stimulated by the standards set by private societies.

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High. She had been valedictorian of her class. Her mother told us, at the time of her first interview in May 1916, that the father had planned to give Hilda a good education. In fact he and his wife had "always hoped to give all the children a good education" (there were two brothers and one sister, all younger than Hilda) and being "a steady industrious man," and she "a careful thrifty woman," they probably would have accomplished this, by dint of much sacrifice. But in December 1915 Hilda's father had died suddenly of pleurisy and the regular pay envelope stopped. There had been some small savings; hence our not making acquaintance with the family until six months after the father's death. Then, too, the mother had promptly gone out to work, to help keep things together. Hilda, she said, "expects to go to work as soon as she is fourteen."

In one of the earliest entries on the record is read the visitor's recommendation that "Hilda continue her course at high school"; that "she will be of much greater help to her mother later on if she does this." Scholarship assistance was granted Hilda from this time—August 1916—through January 1920, when she was graduated as "an exceptionally good student." In addition to carrying the regular high school work, she attended a business school three evenings a week during her senior year, thus getting special training in stenography. Her first position was at the wage of $18 per week. From that time she was several times promoted until as an assistant secretary she was receiving $32 per week—this a few months after all assistance in the family had been discontinued. One is not surprised to learn that she is still pursuing her education now, by evening courses at New York University. Also that she is helping to carry out the hopes of the father and the mother in the matter of "giving all the children a good education." John, the oldest boy, who also was started on a two years' electrical course in a trade school while the family was still under the care of the A. I. C. P., has since completed his course and is earning $24 a week. Olaf, the second boy, is nearing the end of a two-year course in drafting, and the youngest member of the family is in the first year of high school.

Nothing seems more suggestive of real accomplishment than the record made by the children to whom this opportunity of self-help was given. Certainly, as one talks with the mothers about the progress of their children they speak most warmly and appreciatively of this help.

The study of the histories brings out other stories like that of Hilda—also some not as encouraging, particularly of a few boys who spent much time in and out of truancy schools. Undoubtedly the strong controlling hand of a man was the factor most needed by these boys. Yet one is not impressed by these few lapses from good conduct as he is by certain general tendencies running through the family histories.

There was a general responsiveness to fair treatment. In many instances what seemed to be defects in conduct disappeared under the stimulus of education and opportunity. Character was strengthened with the establishment of better living conditions. There is abundant evidence that once the vicious circle of poverty and ill health and ill health and poverty was broken, a healthy succession of redemptive forces began to work *of their own accord.*

To a small degree only were the mothers engaged in work outside their homes. Home work in the way of sewing and embroidery was done by a few, particularly by those who had followed such occupation in earlier years. There are a few instances of others, as children grew older and were all in school, doing a few hours' work certain days of the week other than Saturday.

It is sometimes said that these mothers should be expected to do something towards self-support where home demands are not many and where the age of the children is not such as to require considerable oversight. I would reply that the presence of children makes the home demands many, and that all children require oversight, irrespective of age. These mothers were able to be with their children after school hours, to go with them to the playgrounds and parks in the evenings and on Saturdays. The children were not left to themselves and to the street in the early evenings because the mothers were away at store or office cleaning. Otherwise, one feels certain, there would have been much more waywardness and misconduct on the part of the children. Child guiding and child saving should rest first of all in the home. With the father gone, the mother should be with her children more rather than less.

To sum up the main principles that seem to have been accepted and followed in the treatment of this group:

1. The early working out, *with the mother,* of a plan for the years ahead.
2. Recognition of the fact that until the income needed for the maintenance and the enforcement of a fair standard of life is assured to the family, there can be no foundation upon which the visitor, the nurse and the dietitian can work.
3. Determining this needed income by an analysis of the condition and the needs of each family under the budget plan.
4. Making all reasonable effort to rally and bring into play all possible resources of help to the family, both material and otherwise.
5. Interest in the family's religious life and church connections, with intimate cooperation from those directly responsible for the spiritual welfare of the family.
6. Immediate and intensive attention to the health of each individual in the family, requiring physical examination and emphasizing both preventive and curative measures.
7. Close attention to the progress of the children in their school work with an increasing tendency in the later years to give the children opportunity for special education beyond the required years.
8. Definite planning of some outing in the country during the summer months.
9. Recognizing the necessity of a mother's presence in the home if she is to give proper oversight to her children—impossible if she is required to contribute in any considerable part to the family income by working outside of the home.
10. The establishment of friendship and comradeship between family and visitor, enhanced in this group, we believe, by the continuous service of the latter.

To a discouraged life there is, perhaps, no greater stimulant than love and friendship. Material relief, improved physical surroundings, clinic service, health and food education, these are in considerable part the tools with which visitor, nurse and dietitian work. But the influence that instils virility, initiative, hope, is, we know, often the influence that flows from individual to individual. This form of service one finds coupled with material giving all through the history of these families. Our complicated social order today makes it difficult to be individual Good Samaritans. Organization, machinery, case records have become a necessity. Our problem is one of creating and using that necessary organization and machinery only as channels through which will flow immediately, freely and completely, such service as individuals and the community may need. Its existence is justified only as it does that.

Wm. H. Matthews

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EDUCATION

The New School and the Community

WE have a theory—a number of them, in fact—that "education will make the world over." Conventional educators hold this belief; a considerable part of the oratory dispensed at educational gatherings emphasizes this idea: "Teaching is a noble profession: the teachers hold in their keeping the future of the community!"

No one quite knows just what this idea means. School men think that the gradual increase of knowledge amongst the children of the community will eventually make the whole community intelligent and thus solve all the problems to which man is heir. But what does the word "intelligent" mean? It means various things in various types of schools. In some schools it means (in the words of the National Educational Council) "the complete submission of the mind of the child to a wisdom that is more inclusive than his own can hope to be." In other schools it tends, at least occasionally, to mean (in the words of Professor Frank McMurray) that the child is "being reconciled to the use of his own judgment." These two conceptions are, essentially, the outside limits of discussion: all other schools and teachers take their places somewhere within these limits.

But most conventional schools (including most of our public schools) take the attitude expressed by the National Educational Council, quoted above: Children must be taught subordination to the wisdom of the past; they must be informed but uncritical; they must be stimulated to get ahead, but they must learn to play the game. The school thus becomes an instrument for the training of young people for effective participation in the world as it is.

It must be admitted that this conception of the school is the most logical from the standpoint of our American society; and it is the fairest from the standpoint of psychology. Our American society is rather tightly bound about with a written constitution, so that its political future is to be determined by the past: our political institutions just "are," and that's all there is to it. Any change in them is abhorrent to our established conceptions: for the past six years we have been passing legislation, in many states, making even the suggestion of some changes a crime. Our economic institutions have achieved something of the same quality; the right of a man to the use of his own property in his own way is the true "American doctrine": "All this talk about economic classes in America is absurd: we have no classes; some of us are rich and some are poor; but the rich man today was the poor boy of yesterday. The only proper 'escape' is by the road of individual ambition: learn the game! Get ahead! America spells opportunity!"

The school should help our boys and girls get ready to get ahead. This is our conventional belief.

It is manifestly unfair to educate children for a life that the community will not let them live

On the psychological side, it is manifestly unfair to educate children for a life that the community will not let them live. If children are to be members of our existent communities, they must be trained for participation in existent institutions. The suggestion that children should be prepared to use and follow their own judgments is cruel: the mechanisms of our institutions are too overwhelming. It were far better that children should be taught to give up their own judgments (as John Locke so ably said) and trust themselves to the judgments of those who are older and wiser.

TO be sure, there are schools—New Schools—that distinctly hold that education is a process that goes on within the individual child. The child has rights that may not be disregarded or denied. The child has a nature that calls for release, for exercise, for expression and for complete development. The child is a new individual: simply because he has come to birth in these later ages—after the folkways and institutions of the race have come to such repressive size—is no reason why he should be compelled to submit to these repressive conditions. A child is a child whatever the century in which he is born. The first child ever born had a right to complete development; the child of today has that same right; the last child will still have the right. Let institutions beware: let prejudices and intolerances and old repressions and "the wisdom of the wise" begone! "The child"—any child—has the right to the complete expression of all his innate tendencies and powers!

If, now, the New School could wipe out of existence all our historic institutions and current accumulated folkways, and could send this completely freed child out into a world fresh as at creation's dawn, something might be said for this theory of complete freedom. But no one hopes for any such eventuality. The child of the New School goes home, each day, after the day's work and play at school, to a home that is still primarily conventional; he goes through streets that have never heard of the existence of the New School; he passes industries and business houses that have little, if any, use for the sort of initiative he has been developing all day at school. In short, he goes from his school out into a community that has little knowledge of, and slight interest in, the sort of development he has been securing. Indeed, it is not unlikely that, if the community knew the sort of training that is actually going on in the New School it would look with some suspicion upon these pupils as they come and go. Homes find them rather stimulating and interesting while they are still young and subject to a little mild "showing off"; but the time comes when

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even the home feels that it could put up with a "little less orginality and initiative" on the part of the children, and a "little more sense of order and responsibility."

From this point of view, it becomes obvious that the conventional school comes nearer preparing children for the sort of life they will have to live *under present conditions* than does the New School. Of course, the New School may well retort that "present conditions" do not exist: that we are in the midst of changing conditions; and that the only education that can fit any one for effective life in the world today is a training in the ability to meet changing situations. This is what the conventional school fails to do; this is what the New School emphasizes. What are the determining factors and facts?

THE crucial question comes down to this: Who is going to carry the burden of these changing times? The conventional school minimizes the idea of change, and puts all its children through a rigorous regimentation, from which most escape early, into the types of work that call for a minimum of understanding. Always, however, there are a few "tough-minded" individuals who survive all this regimentation, who are natural rebels and who succeed in getting all the values out of the conventional schooling without losing their initiative, their will-to-fight. Through all the ages, *these* have carried the burden of progress. The masses have drifted; institutions have been complacent: the few "rebels" have forced those slow changes which have transformed old folkways into more intelligent organizations and controls.

These few deserve no pity: from childhood (for the most part) they fought their own ways; they took the brunt of the battle standing up; they asked no quarter; when they succeeded, they were not unduly elated, and when they failed they were not defeated. "Tough" of mind (as James calls them), they were merciful men and counted not the cost to themselves of what they gave to the world.

But the pupils of the New Schools are in no such case as these, at least for the most part. A teacher opens a New School, announcing courses intended to insure the "complete freedom of the individual child." Parents, disaffected by the conventional school, see the announcement and make arrangements to send their children. The children are young (all New Schools start with young children); and the work is interesting and "wonderful." Everything goes beautifully, both at school and at home, until the children get to be ten, eleven, twelve years old. At home, some of the parents have begun to get restless: the children lack discipline; they are not getting prepared for the high schools or for college; they don't know the things that will fit them for business; they don't know how to spell.

At school, these twelve-year-old children are also getting restless: they have developed inquiring minds. They have worked with things, as elementary pupils. But the further along they get, the less they have access to things—the more must they turn to *books about things*. The "things" that little children are interested in can be brought into the school house. The "things" that older children are interested in can, in most cases, not be brought into the school house. They must get their education from the community—or not at all. By the time the New School has brought its children to the age of thirteen or fourteen, it finds them more completely isolated from the current life of the community (including the conventional homes from which many of them come) than are the children of the public schools.

NOW if all these children were of the "tough-minded" sort, the situation would not be undesirable: however isolated they might be, they would still be able to fight their own ways, compelling individuals and institutions to listen and attend. But since there is no selecting of these children on the basis of their "toughness" or "tenderness" of mind, it is quite likely that no more than fifty per cent of them will be of the "tough" variety. In fact, since the percentage of "tough" minds in the community is very small, it is more likely that the percentage in these schools will be very considerably below fifty.

The New School is not merely an "interesting educational experiment"; it is the intellectual center of a new social order, and its teachers and directors must face this fact and adjust themselves to it, or admit, eventually, that they were playing with fire; that they were adventuring in the midst of great issues without knowing what they were doing!

For the "tough-minded" let no one exercise any pity: they will take care of themselves. But for the others, let the New Schools give an account of themselves! Education is not a private function: it does not go on in the minds of individual children; it is a process of inter-relationships: the child and the community are correlative aspects of the process—and *no school may ever ignore either of these* without doing irreparable harm to one or the other of them or both.

In its undertaking a program of education, therefore, the New School must assume responsibilities that go beyond its work for the children committed to its tuition. In fact, the New School has three groups upon which its educational stimulations must be directed—in almost equal degree. It must, of course, do something for the children; but if it does nothing for the other two groups, all it does for the children may do them more disservice than service. It must, therefore, in addition to its work for the children, undertake, continuously, to educate itself—to see its problems in broader and truer perspective; to escape from surviving academicisms and to find the real meanings of freedom and initiative.

But above all, it must educate its community—including the parents, and the homes from which the children come. If the New School stands for anything different from the conventional school, that different education implies and involves something different in the way of homes, industry, morality, religion, the community. But parents do not know this fact; business men do not know it; moral leaders do not know it; few teachers know it! The New School is not merely an "interesting educational experiment"; it is not a proposition of interest to a few parents or a few children; it is not a private procedure. It is the intellectual center of a new social order, and its teachers and directors must face this fact and adjust themselves to it, or admit, eventually, that they were playing with fire; that they were adventuring in the midst of great issues without knowing what they were doing!

J. K. H.

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The Theology of Teaching

"WHERE are you teaching now, Jones?"

"In B—— College. I'm professor of music."

"But B—— College is a Baptist institution. I thought you were a Congregationalist."

"My parents are Congregationalists, and I attended the same church. If I have any preference, I suppose it is for that denomination. But in securing a teaching position, many institutions require you to be a member of their own church. So at present I'm a Baptist. Two years ago I was a Presbyterian. I've been a devout member of five different churches so far. If necessary to secure a good position in my line of work, I'm perfectly willing to join five more. What interests me is music, not theology."

"And I am not an exceptional case," he continued. "One of my colleagues relates a similar story. In early life he attended the United Brethren Church. He makes a particular effort to know exactly what denomination is preferred when seeking a position. He attends a church of the same faith and gets acquainted with the ritual. After becoming well posted, 'learning the ropes,' he applies for the new situation. It is a sort of game with him. But nevertheless it does make hypocrites of us. It is all part of the influence which seeks to mold us to a set form. What difference does it make to me as a violinist whether my students are Baptists or Methodists or Catholics? In teaching purely theological subjects there is some reason for emphasizing church affiliations, but we haven't evolved Catholic, Protestant and Jewish interpretations of Beethoven and Brahms."

A few months ago a young woman signed a contract to teach in a village school in western New York. She had just begun her duties when the school board learned she was Catholic and peremptorily dismissed her. The young teacher refused to take her discharge, appealed to the state department and was reinstated. In West Virginia teachers were recently dismissed because the Ku Klux Klan had initiated an anti-Catholic campaign. Some of the women under the ban had served for years. One Jewish college graduate had arranged by correspondence to teach in a small Long Island town. He traveled two hundred miles to meet his school board and was refused appointment. An acquaintance of mine, a Congregationalist, was told, after he had successfully taught music in a college of another Protestant denomination, that his services would be no longer required, because henceforth only Baptists would be employed, whether in music or mathematics.

Upon many occasions courts have ruled that the public school teacher is a state official. If that interpretation is correct, the teacher stands in a unique position. He is the one servant of the state who may be questioned concerning religious affiliation, in a country founded upon the belief that the church must be separated from the government.

It is sometimes held that Catholics should not be employed in public schools because they have been educated in parochial institutions and do not accept whole-heartedly the philosophy that underlies the development of the secular schools. But we have the experience of the larger, cosmopolitan cities to guide us. A happy mixture of instructors from every part of the world, of every creed or no creed, leads to no more evil result than a student body with keener sympathies and broader intelligence. The teacher should be chosen only for his ability to fill the position in question. Is he well-educated and capable? It is an interesting commentary that in the villages and towns where educational standards are lowest, where graduates of high schools cannot meet college requirements, there we find the greatest emphasis upon church affiliation.

But the teaching profession must not rest in the happy belief that the bigots are punishing themselves and their children. In place of this unsocial attitude must be substituted an aggressive position. The fight must be pressed for legislation that will make it illegal to inquire, directly or indirectly, into the religious belief, or lack of belief, of any teacher in the public school system. There is no more constitutional warrant for asking for the church affiliation of an applicant for a public school position than in asking about the theological belief of a stenographer in the United States Department of Agriculture.

The teaching profession will some day become more articulate. In bringing education to the level of a respectable liberal calling, it will be necessary to emphasize that public education is a state function and that the teacher must be assured the same constitutional safeguards that are granted applicants for other state offices.

DAVID H. PIERCE

Should Students Be Told?

THE following correspondence should be put into the record. That Dartmouth stands today as a free college where minds are provided with the materials of their own growth, is one of the heartening facts of the times. There are others, of course; but even one free college could save the intelligence of the nation from complete defeat!

The first letter is from one of our leading exponents of "loyalty":

THE AMERICAN DEFENSE SOCIETY, INC.
Washington Bureau, 709 Albee Bldg.
R. M. Whitney, Director

Washington, D. C.
February 23, 1924.

President Ernest Martin Hopkins
Dartmouth College, Hanover, N. H.

Dear Sir:

May I ask if you were correctly quoted in this morning's papers as saying that "if Lenine and Trotsky were available" you would certainly bring them in to lecture at Dartmouth?

Having been a newspaper correspondent all my life I know the desire for accuracy on the part of Associated Press correspondents, but I cannot believe that the president of a great American college would give expression to such a statement. I am not an alumnus of Dartmouth but of another college, but I feel very deeply the seriousness of such a statement credited to the head of a college like Dartmouth.

In spite of the fact that the enemies of this Government have made great capital of the fact that William Z. Foster was given hearing at Dartmouth—not officially, but by an undergraduate body—those of us who still believe that we have a form of government better in every way than that advocated by Lenine and Trotsky, had hoped that the directors of the studies of the minds of the youth of America would be careful of the material they fed the immature minds of the coming generations.

For nearly two years I have made a special study of the communist movement in the United States. This study has proved to me conclusively that such remarks as those credited to you could well have been inspired in Moscow and are in strict accord with the well-matured plans of those who would overthrow this Government by violence.

Yours for National Loyalty,
(Signed) R. M. Whitney,
Director of Bureau.

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The second letter is from one of our leading educational statesmen:

DARTMOUTH COLLEGE
Hanover, N. H.
Office of Administration

The President

February 26, 1924

Dear Mr. Whitney:

I am sorry that the statement which I made before the Chicago Alumni is disturbing to you. I did not say exactly what I was quoted as saying in the Associated Press dispatch, but I have no right to quibble over the exact phrasing of it, for the correspondent's expression was accurate so far as the significance of what I said was involved.

I believe that truth has nothing to fear from error if truth be untrammeled at all times and if error be denied the sanctity conferred upon it by persecution or concealment. I stated to the Dartmouth Alumni in Chicago what I have frequently stated before,—that education is quite a different thing from training, and the method of the educational institution calls for diversity in points of view and emphasis upon stimulating the student's thought, while the training school almost inevitably emphasizes instruction and demands conformity to the thought of others.

I stated further that I knew of no reason why there should not be training schools for training the minds of men to various points of view if people could be found who were willing to offer endowment for such schools, and that it was quite compatible with the theory of democracy that we should have labor colleges and colleges for the defense of capitalism, or schools of democracy and schools for the glorification of benevolent despotism, or schools with the purpose of arguing for the validity of one contention or another in theological belief. But I argued further that there was grave danger in the fictitious value which the mind of youth ascribed to submerged or obscured theories and that there never was such great need of true educational institutions as at the present day and that my desire for Dartmouth College was that she should stand for freedom of thought and freedom of speech, without which freedom of thought is impossible, and as an embodiment of confidence in the strength of those things which are right. We should be unafraid that harm could ever come to us mentally, spiritually or morally by the preservation of those liberties which are guaranteed to us by the Bill of Rights.

I further stated that I consider it far more important to stimulate the minds of college men to thought than to prescribe what should be thought or where denial should enter in to tell them what they could not think. I quoted the statement of one of America's great surgeons in commenting upon preventive medicine, that a great mistake was made if assumption arose that health could be understood without understanding disease. I further stated my belief that no good could come, and much possible harm could come, from the misuse of propaganda designed for the establishment of a predetermined point of view. And at that point I stated that I should far prefer to have the presentation of the point of view of a governmental theory which dominated an eighth of the earth's surface through a frank partisan of that theory than through the thoroughly prejudiced presentation of opponents who utilized now in peace the methods of war and whose avowed purpose was the discrediting of the theory rather than learning the evils of government and society which made possible the imposition of such a monstrous theory upon so vast a geographical area and upon so great a number of people.

The essential point in the whole contention was, and remains, that the American undergraduate of from eighteen to twenty-two years old is on the threshold of manhood and is as capable of stripping error from truth as he is capable of distinguishing hypocrisy from genuineness, in both of which he is superior to the average man whose interest has become highly professionalized as apart from the general interest of the college undergraduate.

Of course the fact is,—and I have heard this said within the last few days by some very practical men of large financial and industrial responsibilities,—that the corruption and acquisitive self-interest revealed in the Teapot Dome investigation made more Bolshevists in twenty-four hours than all the agents of the Soviet government could make in years. Yet here again I believe that before we get done we shall all wish that we had a people more judicially-minded and more capable of distinguishing between truth and error than we have at the present time. It is with the aspiration, at least, to do its part in creating such a spirit that I believe that the American college works at the present day. If Dartmouth College fails, in the course of striving for this end, to win the approval of the American Defense Society or to gain the endorsement of its able director, I am regretful, but nevertheless I do not see that these facts can be allowed to change the course of events.

I am

Yours very truly,
(Signed) Ernest M. Hopkins.

The Easy Clue

"WHAT is behind our labor troubles, coal strikes, extortionate coal prices, burglaries, auto thefts, hold-ups, worthless checks, swindling games?" asks a press release marked "immediate." "What is the motive power behind all these acts? Why have they increased so during the last ten years? Why are desperate criminals of today under twenty years of age, not men hardened by years of failure, grinding toil, adverse circumstances and injustice?"

The answer given in this same release in inclusive: All the items enumerated above have come to pass because "over half of our school children are found to lie, cheat and steal!"

> Trained scientists spent three years and over $100,000 discovering (these) facts, the knowledge of which in the future may lead to the elimination of many disturbing, perplexing problems which confront us today. Perhaps it was a cruel thing to do, but these scientists quietly took children from our schools and with ingenious laboratory tests bared their souls to our gaze. They have written down in percentages their character rating for us to behold. The sight is appalling! Our American school children were not able to stand these character tests: they gave way under them.

The results of these tests are presented to us as being "scientific." That remains to be determined. But certain interpretations of these results are worthy of a moment's consideration. One statement seems beyond dispute: "Our children are growing up in an atmosphere hostile in many ways to the best character development." For this atmosphere, the children are, however, scarcely to blame. Not a few of them heartily dislike this atmosphere.

Two other considerations are not so obvious. The suggestion, quoted above, that "labor troubles and coal strikes" should be included in the same category (of immorality) with "worthless checks and swindling games" shows that "tests" can be used by people who lack capacity to understand common, current social phenomena. The use of "tests" is not sufficient to guarantee "scientific results." The interpretation of the results must smack of "science," too.

Moreover, the suggestion is made that the way out of this "atmosphere" is to be found in "expert religious instruction in our public schools." This is not the first time, nor will it be the last, that "scientists" will undertake to cure the inclusive social and industrial ills of our times by giving some sort of formal instruction to children in the schools. It is much easier to teach "morality" to children than it is to make a moral society!

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SURVEY READING LISTS: NUMBER FIVE

Nutrition

By William R. P. Emerson, M. D.

AN outstanding achievement in modern life has been the rational program worked out to meet the great waste due to infant mortality. Never before have we had any period of life controlled by a plan which has made such intelligent use of the latest advances in scientific investigation. This accomplishment makes all the more extraordinary our neglect of the years following infancy. The pre-school years, from the standpoint of health, have been a great desert waste, while the school period is still little better off.

We do not wish to minimize the work done in health inspection of school children. It sprang, as most of our advances have done, from alarm over catastrophes in health rather than from intelligent planning to conserve it. In most of our cities it has taken an epidemic of more than usual extent to lead us to take measures against the dangers of infection increased by bringing large numbers of children into daily close contact with one another. There can be little satisfaction, however, in a program which puts the health of thousands of children in the charge of a single part-time physician. Neither should we use the word "medical" to describe the inspection given to the hurrying line of children passing before an inspector who is forming judgment upon the most important fundamental requirement for success—physical fitness.

Dr. Hart has recently discussed the panacea and patent medicine stages in education. This is just where we are at present as regards health in most schools. As Professor Dewey has so often pointed out we are by no means free from the primitive man's belief in magic. We seize upon some important step and focus attention upon it; this may be some special article of diet; again it is a list of chores or rules taught by a method aptly described in rhyme by a health teacher, the last verse of which was, "And talk, and talk, and talk, and talk, and talk," as though the malnourished boy or girl can get well by his own efforts, or as though training the intellect brings about any marked change in habit. Any such measures carried on by either national or local organizations, including the schools, when confined to mere teaching, have not been sufficient to correct even the simplest and most evident faulty health habit—the use of tea or coffee, for we find everywhere at the present time throughout the country from 60 to 70 per cent of all children taking one or both. The malnourished child needs some one who will find the cause of his impaired nutrition and then make use of the means that will bring about its correction.

The infant is carefully watched. We follow his weight chart and make changes without becoming hypnotized by the fact that some older relative of his is thin and underweight. He is subject to constant physical examinations without the misleading impressions caused by the presence of clothing. We know his program for every part of the twenty-four hours. We are concerned with his mental hygiene, play, sleep, activity, and rest.

What the nutrition program means is the carrying on of our excellent program for infancy throughout the entire period of growth. This requires systematic weighing and measuring; records of forty-eight consecutive hours with reference to activities and feeding; a complete physical-growth examination at least once a year; adequate social and mental examinations; the placing of health and physical fitness before any social or school requirement. Having found the cause of the child's malnutrition, it is necessary for success in its treatment to coordinate the four forces that safeguard his health—the home, the school, medical care, and the child's own interest.

Nutrition is a commonly misused term. It is frequently employed as if it were a synonym of food, but we might just as well attempt to discuss the problems of comfortable living conditions in terms of fuel alone.

Malnutrition refers to the results of serious disturbances of "the process by which the child takes in and utilizes food substances." Fifteen years' clinical work shows that the chief causes of this condition are physical defects, especially naso-pharyngeal obstructions; lack of home control; overfatigue; faulty food habits and improper and inadequate food; faulty health habits. This is the order of their importance. The literature on the subject is still limited and, as has already been suggested, apt to be one-sided in its treatment.

The accompanying reading list is selected with reference to these five causes and to the point of view fundamentally necessary in an effective health program.

Dr. Emerson Recommends

PHYSICAL STATUS OF PRE-SCHOOL CHILDREN, *by Anna E. Rude, M.D. Indiana Government Printing Office, Gary. 1922. Free upon request.*

THE PHYSICAL GROWTH OF CHILDREN FROM BIRTH TO MATURITY, *by Bird T. Baldwin. Studies in Child Welfare, University of Iowa. 1922. Price $3.00 in paper, $3.75 in cloth, postpaid of The Survey.*

SUCCESS AND FAILURE AS CONDITIONS OF MENTAL HEALTH, *by William H. Burnham, M.D. Mental Hygiene, July, 1919; Vol. 3, page 387. Price $.50 a copy.*

HOW TO AVOID SPOILING THE CHILD, *by L. F. Barker, M.D. Mental Hygiene, April, 1919; Vol. 3, No. 2. Price $.50*

FEEDING THE FAMILY, *by Mary Swartz Rose. Macmillan Co. 1916. Price $2.40 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE NEWER KNOWLEDGE OF NUTRITION, *by E. V. McCollum. Macmillan Co. 1922. Price $3.30 postpaid of The Survey.*

FOOD, HEALTH AND GROWTH, *by L. Emmet Holt, M.D. Macmillan Co. 1922. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

PRINCIPLES OF PSYCHOLOGY, *by William James, M.D. Chapter IV, Habit. Henry Holt & Co. 1908. Price $8.00 postpaid of The Survey. Or Chapter X of the briefer course. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

HUMAN NATURE AND CONDUCT, *by John Dewey. Chapter II, Habits and Will. Henry Holt & Co. 1922. Price $2.25 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE MIND IN THE MAKING, *by J. H. Robinson. "Our habits of thought and how they came about." Harper & Bros. 1921. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

NUTRITION, THE CHEMISTRY OF LIFE, *by Lafayette B. Mendel. Yale University Press. 1923. 150 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

NUTRITION AND GROWTH IN CHILDREN, *by William R. P. Emerson, M.D. D. Appleton & Co. 1922. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

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BOOK REVIEWS

Birth, Food and Death

AS a short text book, the first of these volumes is worthy of the distinguished series of which it is a part (the Cambridge Economic Handbooks, J. M. Keynes, general editor); indeed, it could hardly be improved—except perhaps by amplification of the qualitative aspects of the subject to which only one chapter out of nine is devoted. Mr. Wright gives a brief but clear and adequate summary of the teaching of Malthus and other early writers and sets forth present theories with scientific detachment. While for the most part he leans on Carr-Saunders and other modern students, the author contributes original observations of refreshing common sense, and his style is a model of popular yet in no way condescending exposition.

He evidently knows the human realities that underlie statistics; as, for example, when he points out that a short burst of high wages leads to reckless spending and subsequent relapse into the former condition, whereas a community or a class that has attained a decent standard of life and maintained it for a time is extremely tenacious of that standard; or when he suggests that "the small families of textile workers may be accounted for by the status of women as wage-earners among them, while the position of women in the isolated mining districts may equally explain the enormous birth-rate there"; or again when he translates into terms of human suffering the high rate of infant mortality which, according to economists, "compensates for" a high birth-rate.

One point on which the author differs from Malthus is the former's inclusion of war among the checks on increase of population beyond the level of subsistence. Not only in the recent war, but as long ago as the Thirty Years War, the destruction of human life was more than equalled by the destruction of food and the means of producing food; so that the result was not relief for the survivors but a lower standard of living. To English readers will be of special interest the proof advanced for the statement that large-scale emigration could not by itself permanently ensure the maintenance of the present standard of life in Great Britain. To American readers the author's condemnation of the short-sighted tariff policy of the United States will be of special interest; he believes that by diverting capital and labor from the production of food and raw materials by state action, America has artificially accelerated the Law of Diminishing Returns.

The threatening disproportion between population and resources can be overcome, he believes, by an increasing productivity of labor and by voluntary restriction of the birth-rate. In so far as it is aggravated in particular countries by the unwillingness of others to permit their expansion or to receive their surplus population, he sees no remedy except a world cooperation fair to all races and nations; but he is not sanguine that the world is ready for a peaceful adjustment. In the same way, while he recognizes the possibility that science may discover, and possibly soon, inexhaustible supplies of life-sustaining energy by the transmutation of elements, he insists that the present situation must be met on the basis of present knowledge. If statements of that situation were usually as sober and well informed as that of the present book, the "shallow optimism" which for a century has obscured the true theories and predictions of Malthus, could not survive today.

Even more useful for the American student is the text book by Professor Reuter who once before, in a book on The Mulatto in the United States, has made a notable contribution to the field of sociological demography. It has the advantage of dealing primarily with American problems, though it briefly reviews the whole subject, and is to be welcomed more especially for the sanity with which it disentangles truth from falsehood in current theories and propagandas.

Statistical summaries bearing on many vital facts are stated clearly and arranged without ulterior purpose. The chapters on composition and distribution of populations, growth of population, birth and death-rate, immigration and other phases, alone would make this work a valuable handbook. The chapters reviewing the different population theories likewise excel in accuracy in spite of condensation and in a style that is likely to lead the student on to further reading. The sources given, in most cases, are easily accessible.

The general tendency of the book is to demonstrate the number and complexity of other than biological facts that influence the growth and character of population. A description is given of the real nature of the reproductive tendency and of the social factors that determine the reproductive rates of human societies. Incidentally, many of the fallacies of contemporary writers which have from time to time been pointed out in these pages are exposed with convincing clarity—the fallacy, for instance, that there is a necessary direct causal relation between a high death-rate and a high birth-rate, and the reverse; the fallacy that a heavy death-rate in the first year of life represents a selective process; and the fallacy that there is an inverse relationship between the cerebral development of man and his capacity to procreate; the fallacy, moreover, that the human animal in the course of history has become less fertile.

While there is much that we should like to quote if space permitted, we will cite only one short paragraph, because it seems to us to contain the whole crux of the present conflict of theories. He says:

> Any consistent population policy implies a somewhat definite conception of a type of society to which approximation is to be made and to which the population policy is contributory. America has evolved no such national ideal.

He points out that the causal relationship between a

POPULATION, *by Harold Wright. Harcourt, Brace and Co. 180 pp. Price $1.25 postpaid of The Survey.*

POPULATION PROBLEMS, *by Edward Byron Reuter. J. B. Lippincott Co. 338 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

MANKIND AT THE CROSSROADS. *by Edward M. East. Charles Scribner's Sons. 360 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

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diminishing birth-rate of the native stock and a large flow of immigration, which is assumed by some writers, has never been proved; both, on the contrary, "appear to spring from the rapidly evolving social conditions." For this reason, he does not accept the belief that the population of the United States would be as large to-day as it is if there had been no immigration in the last half or three-quarters of a century.

The most contentious chapters, perhaps, are those which deal with problems of quality of population, including differences in the birth-rates of its various constituent classes and racial groups, race mixtures and the problems of inferiority and superiority. Here, again, the author's attacks on current theories and statement of the nature of the problems under review are for the most part the results of a sound appreciation for scientific evidence and open-mindedness in the face of unproven theories. No easy solutions are offered. On the other hand, the possible lines of advance toward racial improvement are set forth so stimulatingly as to offset any tendency which so honest a book might otherwise have to engender pessismism in view of the magnitude and difficulty of the problem.

Population Problems, in short, is a book warmly to be recommended wherever people are trying to understand what they are and what are likely ways out instead of merely seeking rational support for their preconceived notions. For college students, more particularly, a course of study based upon it should prove valuable.

Professor East's book is of an altogether different category. Its sensational title is to some extent justified by some of the facts which he brings together to show that, unless there is a complete change in national and international attitude towards the problems of population, there will not be standing room for our grandchildren in the United States. He has the advantage of combining with his interest in demography and biological trends considerable practical knowledge of world agriculture and food resources, but he shares with other prophets of calamity a certain lack of imagination or of faith in the power of a society to adjust itself to new circumstances.

This is especially true of his estimates of future soil fertility. Compared with industrial developments, the state of agriculture the world over—apart from small beginnings in almost insignificant parts of the cultivable area—is as yet practically primitive; and with even slight adaptations of a modern technique, and with a political reorganization which would bring into closer cooperation temperate and tropical resources in climate, labor, capital and soil components, the food output should increase far more rapidly than the author assumes. Of course, he is right in predicting that the adaptation of population to food resources in the next century or so will not be without suffering and strife; and he is rendering a service in drawing attention to the largest political and economic problem before the world, compared with which present conflicts in international relationships are on matters of mere detail. But it is to be hoped that this pronouncement on the subject as a whole will be followed up by more detailed studies of its different phases rather than by more gloomy prognostications of universal doom. For there is now a sufficiently large educated democracy in different parts of the world to promise clear thinking and preventive action if the facts of the situation are made available.

While Professor East supports most of his contentions in detail, some of the most startling are not proved with figures: for instance, the statement that immigration does not relieve population pressure but is immediately made up for by an increased birth-rate. Unfortunately, moreover, he has adopted many now fashionable fallacies in the field of race biology of which we can here only record one or two: that the more recent immigration to the United States comes not only from inferior stocks but also from the riff-raff of the peoples of which they are a part while the older immigrants were the "best the countries afforded." He calls the earlier immigration a "fairly uniform ethnical group" with similar ideas and ideals, forgetting that even if ethnical differences are perhaps greater between say, Italians and Poles than between Swedes and Irish, the development of intercourse and communication in the last half century has made for greater similarity of ideas and ideals in all parts of Europe. He disregards social factors in appraising the qualities of Negroes and other conquered races.

Nevertheless, Mankind at the Crossroads is an interesting contribution which does support the author's main contention that the problems of population increase and distribution must be tackled with relation to the food resources of the world. B. L.

Public Health in the Tow

THE ELEMENTS OF PUBLIC HEALTH ADMINISTRATION, *by George S. Luckett and Harold F. Gray. P. Blakiston's Son & Co. 460 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

FOR several years the Committee on Municipal Health Department Practice of the American Public Health Association, with the financial aid of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, and with the cooperation of the United States Public Health Service, has been making thorough-going health surveys of the cities of the United States of 100,000 population and over. This survey service, now expanded to cover cities of 70,000 and over, has not only supplied a tremendous volume of information with reference to health department methods in these communities, but has built up a procedure for studying health conditions and health practices hitherto unequalled in scope and thoroughness.

It has also resulted in an extremely helpful group of standards as to municipal health practice, now being promulgated by the organizations involved. A similar survey project covering cities from forty to seventy thousand population under the auspices of the American Child Health Association promises to round out the machinery for the collection of information and the promotion of tested and proved health activities as applied to all but the smaller units of population in the United States.

The volume by Luckett and Gray, in a sense, very advantageously supplements the information now to be made available for health officers and others through these surveys. It is designed as a sort of elementary text book on public health administration for local health officers, particularly in the smaller communities, and especially when located in areas more or less remote from the great centers of population.

The authors have recognized also the importance of serving the need of the average practising physician. If the great personal hygiene movement of the future is to be largely based on the private practise of preventive medicine, if the

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public is to be urged to go to the doctor for a health examination, if parents are to be urged to take their children to the physician for a Schick test and for toxin-antitoxin diphtheria immunization, then it is extremely important that information with reference to the more recent developments of preventive medicine be made available for the busy, more or less isolated, private medical practitioner, in simple, practical, readable form. This object the authors seem to have attained, frankly stating that the volume ". . . is in no wise intended to supplant the more comprehensive texts, but only to furnish a handy manual of practical suggestions."

The major section of the book dealing with the preventable diseases should serve excellently for ready reference. These causes of unnecessary illness and premature mortality are discussed from the angle of the infectious agent, the mode of transmission, the incubation period, immunity, diagnosis, control and prevention, and mortality. This section seems to be with few exceptions as up-to-date as any volume can be with reference to recent discoveries in immunization, serum therapy, etc., considering the rapidity with which current scientific progress is being made in this field.

The book covers the major elements in a community health program such as infant hygiene, child hygiene, public health education, community sanitation, etc., with the notable exception of industrial hygiene, this phase being omitted for the reason that it ". . . seldom concerns the average county or small town health officer." A valuable appendix contains practical suggestions for community organization during epidemics, various health department record forms, instructions for public health nurses, a lecture course for midwives, a description of the Schick test technique taken from Rosenau, and a simple, though concretely presented plan for a county health program.

DONALD B. ARMSTRONG, M. D.

Can Religion Be Democratic?

IMPERIALISTIC RELIGION AND THE RELIGION OF DEMOCRACY, *by William Adams Brown. Charles Scribners' Sons. 223 pp. Price $2.25 postpaid of The Survey.*

THERE was a time—not so long ago—when religion was not discussed. Now it has become a headliner in metropolitan dailies and not even the mimic wars of politics are receiving the attention bestowed upon the controversies of Fundamentalists and Modernists. Yet controversy has never determined anything and will never determine anything; it is by open-minded conference that lasting results are obtained. In such a spirit this book is written.

Professor Brown asks the question which many people are asking today: "If religion be the most important thing in human life, as multitudes of men have believed, how comes it that we differ so widely as to what religion is?"

The answer to this question he finds in psychology: "When we have learned to understand religion as an experience of living men facing a changing environment we can hope to understand the different forms which it has assumed in the course of its historic development." He shows that there are three possible attitudes which a man may take toward existing conditions; he may "accept them as they are, protest against them as corrupt, or believe that society is in the process of remaking in which each may have a part." These contrasts are the basis of a new classification of religious types which he designates as imperialism, individualism, and democracy. These classifications cut across all the accepted divisions, for imperialism embraces groups as wide apart as Roman Catholics and militant Fundamentalists. He sets forth his definition of the three terms which he uses as follows:

> By imperialism we shall understand a type of religion, the representatives of which believe that they serve God best when they submit to the control of some existing institution whose supremacy in the world they identify with the triumph of God's will. By individualism we shall understand a type of religion whose representatives despair of satisfaction through any existing institution, and find solace in immediate communion between the individual soul and God. By democracy we shall understand a type of religion the representatives of which are convinced that they serve God best when they discover His presence in other persons and unite with them in the progressive realization of the social order which it is God's purpose to establish on earth through the free cooperation of man.

Christianity is not yet the religion of democracy, and there are some who are trying with all their might to keep it from ever so becoming. But there are others who are striving with equal zeal and in what seems to be a little more Christian fashion, to hasten the day when it will be. To these Professor Brown's book will be a guide, as he himself is a leader.

WILLIAM E. BROOKS

In Black and White

DARKER PHASES OF THE SOUTH, *by Frank Tannenbaum. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 203 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS collection of essays, published in part in the Century Magazine, has not that formal unity of other descriptive monographs which, while endeavoring to tell you "all about it," contain much less accurate observation on essentials than Mr. Tannenbaum is able to present. This young author has mixed in many circles and developed a sympathetic ear for people confused by the practical problems of social life, whether they be unemployed laborers or large employers, foreign-born radicals or government officials with an American family tree rooted in the Revolution. As a consequence his interpretation of the South in its industrial and race relationships is full of understanding for the way in which different attitudes have arisen and survive the social and economic changes now taking place. He does not condemn, he explains; and, for the most part, his explanations are historically and psychologically convincing.

Other writers have traced the recent growth of the Ku Klux Klan to the paradox that the South fears both the dominance of the Negro race and the loss of the Negro as an economic asset. But none have with greater precision dissolved this paradox by showing the variety of factors that influence and modify these fears, by tracing the roots of the Klan as he does to the soil of boredom and depression in the small town of the South.

Mr. Tannenbaum analyses delicately but none the less with precision the unsatisfied desires that find vent in perverted attitudes to sex and in the commitment and toleration of a brutality which without an understanding for the background from which they spring would be inexplicable. His description of southern penal methods undoubtedly will be attacked as limited too much to their darkest aspects, without sufficient recognition for the growing and, here and

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there, already successful reform movement. But he does not pretend that his picture is complete; his task is rather to awaken America, not least the South itself, to stronger efforts.

The chapters dealing with the mill village and with rural conditions, on the other hand, portray conditions that are general. So far as the former are concerned, no very exhaustive research is needed to confirm the view that the South in its industrial development has learned almost nothing from the experience of the industrial North in labor management. All the old mistakes for which the country is paying so dearly in strife and inefficiency are here being repeated on a colossal scale—not from the motive of greed but, on the contrary, from that of a mistaken sense of social responsibility, a truly tragic situation.

The last chapter of the book, containing suggestions for solutions of some of the outstanding problems of the South, is most stimulating but not altogether satisfying. The present reviewer, for instance, impressed and depressed as he often is by the hardened attitude of the southern white to the Negro, cannot assent to the repeated statement that "there is no solution." The race problem as such, it is true, will never be solved, just as the poverty problem until about two decades ago seemed insoluble. But it can be broken up into a number of component problems for each of which there is a practical solution. Not once in the book does Mr. Tannenbaum mention the growing movement for interracial cooperation which directs its energies, with ever-increasing success, to concrete tasks of betterment—tasks which, it is true, do not solve the race problem but which narrow it down, as the educational movement among whites and Negroes, the modernization of the churches, the growing prosperity of the Negro in industry and in diversified farming, the lessened congestion through emigration, the incoming of foreigners, the financial integration with the North, the industrialization of certain states and other factors narrow it down in other respects. Pessimism and impatience are perhaps less justified today than ever. The influences that make for friction may seem to grow more rapidly than those that make for tolerance; but a catastrophic readjustment is not inevitable if North and South combine in efforts to find—not a way out, for Mr. Tannenbaum is right in saying there is no single solution—but ways to strengthen the liberalizing elements already at work.

B. L.

Planned Play

THE THEORY OF ORGANIZED PLAY. *by Wilbur Bowen and Elmer Mitchell. A. S. Barnes & Co. 402 pp. Price $2.40 postpaid of The Survey.*

SOME historians and many philosophers have sensed the influence of the sports and pastimes of people, and the histories of every tribe and nation contain unlimited accounts of manifold amusements and methods of using leisure time, yet the point of view has been one of narration rather than that of scientific investigation. It was not until the middle of the nineteenth century that any effort was made to account for this universal activity, play, in scientific terms. Three theories, two advanced in the latter half of the last century and one early in this, have been the fortresses around which most subsequent thought has centered: the surplus energy idea of Spencer, the preparation for adult life or instinct theory of Groos and the recapitulation theory of G. Stanley Hall. While each of these is now discredited in the main, they have pointed the way, and the literature in America until very recently has been concerned with the interpretation and application of these theories.

This book makes no advance in the field of creative thought about play. But as a compilation of the best that has been said and done in the interest of recreation, it surpasses anything yet produced. The authors cannot claim the depth and philosophy of George Johnson, the inspiration of Curtis, nor the stimulation of Patrick; yet in the advancement of the knowledge and comprehension of the great problem of leisure, their book will probably be as important a milestone as the work of those leaders.

Four main divisions of the book deal with the background of the present play movement; an analysis of it; a study of types of play activity and of methods of organizing them; and the philosophy and psychology of play in education. The book is well written, clear and concise, and its weighty material skilfully organized into fairly short paragraphs with topical headings. An extensive bibliography after each chapter adds to its value as a text.

Those who are training recreation leaders or teaching organized play, and are faced with the necessity of economizing time and effort, will find this a valuable addition to their bookshelves.

HELEN ALPHA BURKART

THE RUN OF THE SHELVES

Books are listed here as received. Many of those mentioned by name only in the classified sections below will be reviewed later.

Social Practice

DEAR ROBINSON, *by Edward R. Johnstone. Vineland Training School Press, Vineland, New Jersey. 139 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

IT MAY NOT BE too much to say that no man in the state of New Jersey is more beloved than the author of Dear Robinson. Who has not heard of Vineland? Did you ever ask what is there about the Training School at Vineland that makes everybody who has ever been there overflow with enthusiasm? In Dear Robinson, the Vineland Spirit (long may he remain corporeal) himself speaks. Genius is not always so modest, but this one has the modesty of true greatness and only under the guise of writing confidentially to an intimate friend who has just been made superintendent of a new institution, could Dr. Johnstone speak freely of the many manifestations of the spirit that together make the Vineland Training School what it is. This little volume of 139 pages is a masterpiece, a veritable Uncle Tom's Cabin of the Feeble-minded Child. It is a *vade mecum,* alike to the parents of defective children, teachers, legislators, superintendents, and everybody else interested in a philosophy of life so true that it can function successfully among the varied types of humanity to be found in an institution for the feeble-minded as well as among the intelligent people who are trying to solve wisely the social problems that confront our civilization. It would be impossible to convey an idea of the contents of this book. One must read it. Not all the ideas are new. Some of them are old, but expressed in new form and best of all with a spirit that shows that they are not merely academic theories, but deep-seated convictions resulting from experience. Under such circumstances it is always gratifying "to find the gold of our own opinions in a fellow heap of dust."

HENRY H. GODDARD

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A GREAT IDEAL AND ITS CHAMPION: PAPERS AND ADDRESSES BY THE LATE SIR CHARLES STEWART LOCH, *prepared for the London Charity Organization Society. George Allen and Unwin, Ltd. 223 pp. Price $1.08 postpaid of The Survey.*

TO THOSE who like to know whence a thing came and for those who like to see how a personality can leave its imprint on a movement and so on a phase of civilization, these papers and addresses give a spirited and vivid picture of the thinking of the man who made, indeed of the man who was, according to the London Times, the London C. O. S. In 1874, fresh from Balliol, he entered the service of the society, then five years old. From that time to his retirement, enforced by ill health, in 1914, he was the ardent and untiring interpreter of the meanings of Charity—which he conceived as "social love and that action of which social love is the expression," and of its relation to the newer social thinking which was then making such notable contributions to the study of society. Sir Charles died in January, 1923. The publication of this book under the auspices of the London Charity Organization Society is a memorial to his immeasurable services as the secretary to the council of the society. It is sometimes said that social workers know better *how* they work than why. Such a charge cannot be made against Sir Charles. He brought society itself into his view and related his approach to betterment to those from many other angles. He had an underlying philosophy which it might be well for many young social workers to examine.

N. R. D.

AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF PSYCHOPATHIC DELINQUENT WOMEN, *by Edith R. Spaulding. Rand McNally & Co. 368 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

CHILD WELFARE IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, *by Hastings H. Hart. Russell Sage Foundation. 150 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

Industry

THE PERSONAL RELATION IN INDUSTRY, *by John D. Rockefeller, Jr. Boni & Liveright. 149 pp. Price $1.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

IT IS a great service to the cause of progress to have a sincere statement of many liberal points of view made by a man who must be regarded as friendly to the interests of those whose present power for good or evil is greatest in the land—the investors. The author reiterates his quiet, reasoned belief in partnership as against dominance, in the priority of service over profit, in the necessity for personal contact and a specific cultivation of the spirit of brotherhood; in the rights of labor to organize, their individual rights of appeal and the value of employe representation. His vision includes the extension of works committees into a system coordinating employes and management in all corporations of an industry or community; and their full reconciliation with trade union interests. He makes a significant affirmation in the first article—which is the most finished and, it would seem, the most recent—that management is not merely the creature of the stockholders but is "an entirely separate and distinct party to industry." The earlier speeches of 1915, aimed quite definitely at the Colorado Fuel and Iron problem, name four parties in the industry—investors, directors, officers and employes. Admitting the directors would seem to make admission also of the works committee a logical necessity. But later a less corporate point of view drops the directors and adds the community; adds them very specifically in the following somewhat intriguing words: "I believe that the community is an essential party to industry and that it should have adequate representation with the other parties." The book makes evident a sincere democratic purpose working upon some deep autocratic presuppositions. Starting thus with Things as They Are this volume can be of more present practical value—of more inspiration and incitation to steps in progress—than a dozen shockers which refuse the presupposition of normal business minds, especially of the investor. Mr. Rockefeller will not be willing to stop his work here. No one is more favorably placed to carry on the same searching analysis he has made in partnership with Mackenzie King, but this time into the claims and interests of various sorts of investors, their relations to the varying risk factors, and to control, to management and to labor under different conditions of risk, of knowledge and of responsibility.

HENRY S. DENNISON

GOVERNMENT OWNERSHIP OF COAL MINES, *by Julia E. Johnsen. H. W. Wilson Company. 392 pp. Price $2.40 postpaid of The Survey.*

IN SPITE of the scorn of the U. S. Coal Commission, the indifference of Congress, and the lethargy of the official family of the United Mine Workers of America, the subject of government ownership of the coal mines appears to hold the continued and eager attention of thousands of high school and college students. During the past two years, and especially since the publication of Survey Graphic on coal, scores of requests have come from teachers and students for literature on this subject. Hitherto the data has been widely scattered and difficult to assemble. A great deal of the most important available material has now been brought together by Julia E. Johnsen and published by the H. W. Wilson Company in their debating Handbook Series. While not the product of original research in the economics of coal and the theory and practice of government ownership, the volume, in addition to briefs for and against such ownership, contains a remarkably interesting collection of documentary material, together with a compact and well selected bibliography prepared by the late Frank V. Anderson of the Bureau of Industrial Research.

R. W. B.

THE INTELLECTUAL WORKER AND HIS WORK, *by William MacDonald. The Macmillan Co. 351 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

"WHEREVER the honor or dignity of an intellectual occupation is emphasized, wages will generally be found to be low; wherever the utilitarian value of the occupation is generally recognized, wages will as a rule be relatively high and exceptional rewards for exceptional performance will be generally accepted as proper." With such frankness as this, Mr. McDonald argues that the economic disabilities and hampering conditions of work which now confront intellectual workers the world over point to the wisdom of their organization into professional groups and federations, and supports his argument with a methodical and impressive array of facts.

G. S.

ECONOMICS FOR EVERYMAN, *by James E. LeRossignol. Henry Holt & Co. 335 pp. Price $2.15 postpaid of The Survey.*

HENRY GEORGE'S PROGRESS AND POVERTY, *by Anna G. DeMille. Harcourt, Brace & Co. 214 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE PACKING INDUSTRY, *a series of lectures given under the joint auspices of the School of Commerce and Administration of the University of Chicago and the Institute of American Meat Packers. University of Chicago Press. 357 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

FARM CREDITS IN THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA, *by James B. Morman. Macmillan Co. 406 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE STRIKE FOR UNION, *by Heber Blankenhorn. H. W. Wilson Co. 259 pp. Price $2.25 postpaid of The Survey.*

Religion

JESUS AND CIVIL GOVERNMENT, *by A. T. Cadoux. George H. Doran Co. 163 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

SO DIVERSE are the interpretations of the teachings of Jesus about government, civil coercion, war, that one sometimes wonders if it is not a hopeless task to try to get from the words of Jesus definite guidance for present-day action. This book is a rational and moderate attempt by a clergyman to make such an interpretation. In view of the social environment and the immediate activities of Jesus and his disciples, what was in his mind? Mr. Cadoux "proves" nothing. One who is inclined to the conclusions set forth will see their conclusiveness; one who is not will see controversial hypotheses. However, to those who are interested in carving an ethical system out of Jesus' words, this book forms an excellent basis for thought and discussion.

A. B.

THE TOWN AND COUNTRY CHURCH IN THE UNITED STATES, *by H. N. Morse and E. de S. Brunner. George H. Doran Co. 179 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS is another volume of the series of town and country studies of churches prepared by the Committee on Social and Religious Surveys (now the Institute of Social and Religious Research) already noticed in these pages. It is not a comforting book for those who love "to dwell at ease in Zion," for it reveals a challenging condition of affairs in the country church. The data used was secured by the intensive survey of twenty-four representative counties in different parts of the nation, to which was added (*Continued on page* 118)

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SOCIAL WORK SHOPTALK

"I AM getting just about fed up," snapped the health worker as she settled her small person into the biggest and deepest chair in her neighbor's apartment, "with the way people pronounce the word *data*. It seems to me that everybody I know makes use of this word constantly, especially social workers; and they all call it *datta*, and forget, if they ever knew, that it is a plural."

"Yes," said the publicity director of the library association; "the typical liberrian is my idea of what not to be like. She always says *this datta*."

The psychiatrist was very much amused. She agreed that the people in her office said the same thing, and also that each group of social workers seemed to have its own overworked expressions.

"By the way, how do you pronounce your job at present?" said the health worker. "Is the "y" long or short? And where are you putting the accent?"

"Well, we call it sick-i-at'ric social work," was the reply, "with the y short as in *dinnamite*."

"Yes, we all have our ways," said the liberrian. "I notice that people in the Y. W. C. A. are always talking about *teen age* and *key persons*."

"Yes, and the Y. M. C. A. is always using *reaction*, and to the Red Cross everybody is *emergent* and must be hospitalized. What are you sick-i-at'rics 'stressing' at present?"

"Well, we say *develop a neurosis* as often as we can," replied the psychiatrist laughing.

"The child welfare people," mused the health worker, "don't seem to offend greatly in the matter of words except that they do talk about *kiddies*."

"Exactly! That sort of person when he makes a public talk always has a *message*. Yes, there are a lot of pious pills in social work. It is they who win for us such epithets as uplifter. I refuse to be classed with them. It is my ambition to be taken for a chorus girl; that's why I bobbed my hair."

"How do you mean, taken? Taken out to dinner?"

"Yes, something like that."

"Well, I hope you'll be taken. It certainly is important to keep from becoming a frump. But to return to my grouch. Bishop Lawrence recently spoke of the unpleasant significance which attached itself to the word *campaign* and the necessity of using the word in spite of this because there doesn't seem to be a substitute when it comes to raising funds, *drive* being quite as bad, if not worse. *Crusade* is another poor wretch that has taken unto itself a stigma. Alas, yes, and if there is one phrase that bores me more than all the rest of these, it is *splendid spirit of cooperation*. Just watch how few days you can spend without hearing that bunch of words.

"Then there are the medical people," continued the health worker, "who can't get away from the fact that their trade was once soaked in Latin. On one of their recent convention programs I noticed the word *sequelae* used over and over. What in the name of Chaucer, Shakespeare, and Bernard Shaw is the matter with sequels? They mention *sanatoria*, too, with great delight, and such a form as *sanatoriums* is to them anathema. I have a whimsical sister who is so impressed with the elegance of this solemn style that she raises gerania and nasturtia in her garden.

"Even people who are not social workers are afflicted with such lingo. The other day I interviewed an editor of one of the great metropolitan dailies. I expected to meet so august a person that I entered his presence with humility, but before long he was talking about *this datta* just like all the rest of us, and he promptly moved into a pigeon hole several spaces farther down.

"I am afraid there is nothing we can do about it; so I think I'll go home and to bed. By the way," she concluded with a sigh, "if you don't mind, I should like to borrow your mousetrap. I noticed a little gray friend streaking around the edge of my room last night."

"With pleasure," said the liberrian; "let me know what reaction you get."

"All right, if I don't develop a neurosis I will inform you as to the sequelae and then we can have all this datta compiled into a sick-i-at-ric report," promised the health worker.

"Owing, of course, to our splendid spirit of cooperation," murmured the psychiatrist.

JANE HUFFORD

SEATED in the wheel chair to which she has been confined for the past three years, Edna G. Henry, dean of medical social work in Indiana, received the first award of honorary membership in the Indianapolis Community Fund at its annual dinner with a silver loving cup presented by eight men's luncheon clubs. The new constitution of the fund permits the directors to choose one honorary member each year on the basis of outstanding and unselfish community service. No special duties or privileges accompany this membership. A nominating committee of lawyers, merchants, manufacturers, real estate men, and bankers, representing the contributing luncheon clubs as well as the directors, sifted many suggestions from an interested public. That their final choice fell upon a person distinguished neither for large gifts of money nor for membership on many boards and committees, but rather for her intellectual grasp of social case work, has won city-wide approval.

Miss Henry is a graduate of Indiana University, from which she received her Ph. D. degree in 1917. In June 1911, she became director of its social service department, located in Indianapolis. As professor and associate director (since a serious illness), having in her charge the social training of physicians, nurses, and case workers; as founder of the Dispensary Aid Association for the city dispensary; as Red Cross home service worker during the war; as supervisor of reconstruction aides and organizer of medical social service in the United States Army; as the first president of the American Association of Hospital Social Workers; and as a frequent contributor to medical and social journals, Miss Henry has made the cheerful home at 1414 Broadway from which she now carries on her work the radiating center of a new appreciation of the values of intelligent sympathy, given wider currency through this award by the Community Fund.

THE VOLUNTEER manager of the American Red Cross Washington Division, Mrs. John Allan Dougherty, has offered her resignation, in consideration of her continued ill health. J. Arthur Jeffers, assistant manager of the same division, has been appointed to succeed her. Mr. Jeffers is a seasoned professional worker and has served the Red Cross as director of civilian relief in the old Pennsylvania-Delaware Division and director of chapter division in the Atlantic Division.

THOSE WHO REMEMBER the agreeable summer evenings on the open campus at Brown two years ago will be glad to learn that this year's hosts plan to hold the general sessions of the National Conference of Social Work on a large open quadrangle on the campus of the University of Toronto.

THE VOCATIONAL BUREAU of the American Association of Social Workers is now headed by Lillian A. Quinn, a Vassar graduate who has had a varied experience in social work. She comes from the secretaryship of the state advisory council of the Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania.

DR. H. DOUGLAS SINGER has become medical director of the Illinois Society for Mental Hygiene, succeeding Dr. Ralph P. Truitt, who has gone to Los Angeles to head the child guidance clinic recently opened there in connection with the Commonwealth Fund demonstration.

FORT WAYNE loses its aggressive community chest executive, F. D. Preston, who has accepted the secretaryship of the community chest and Welfare Federation of Omaha.

THE FIRST mental hygiene clinic in the Carolinas was opened in March at Asheville, N. C., under the direction of Dr. Louis Bisch, formerly lecturer at Columbia and psychologist of the New York City police department.

THE ACTION of the North Carolina Conference on Social Service in employing a full time secretary, Minnie E. Harman, has been followed by a series of regional conferences throughout the state. The first was held at Ashville in early March, with an attendance of 200. The next will be held in May in the north central section. The state conference is making an enviable record for publicity. Reports of the 1924 conference, at Charlotte, March 24-27, were the dominating news features in the leading local newspaper for three days. The Charlotte Observer of March 27, carried a three-column front page story and a total of six columns in one issue—about one-tenth of the news. Similar interest was shown by the newspapers in the regional conference at Ashville. The president of the 1925 conference is the editor of one of the largest newspapers in the state, D. Hadin Ramsey, Ashville Times.

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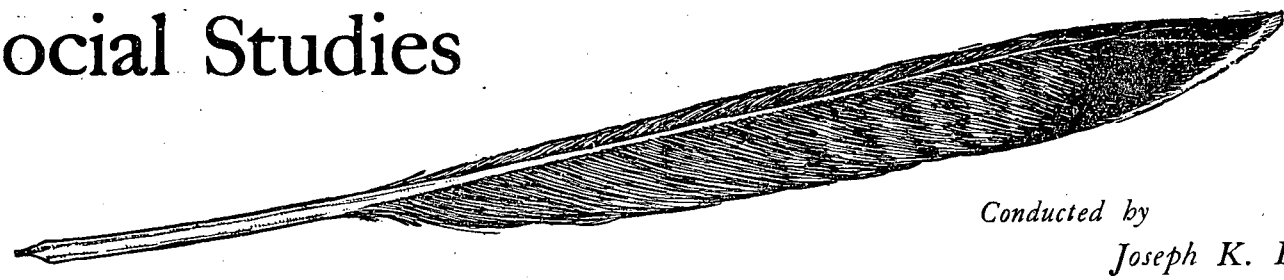
Social Studies



Conducted by
Joseph K. Hart

The Beginnings of Social Intelligence

EVERY social group, primitive or modern, represents a more or less definite and permanent set of customs, attitudes of mind and range of permissible activities. Hence, membership in any such group tends to organize the life and the living of the member in respect to these customs, attitudes and activities. It gives him the sense of security and group support; it closes his eyes to other modes of life; it makes him narrow, dogmatic, satisfied. That is to say, membership in a group establishes in the member a set of habits which are the personal counterpart of the customs of the group; the group is not outside and around him; it is inside him: what is custom in the group becomes habit in him.

If, therefore, the same individual is a member of a number of groups (as is likely to be the case in the modern world) he has probably (more or less unwittingly) let himself in for a number of such sets of habits; and he is likely, eventually, to find that these sets of habits are more or less incompatible with each other; or they may turn out to be quite definitely antagonistic to one another.

Results of this sort are familiar to all of us, by observation if not by personal experience: the individual finds himself torn as between these incompatible, or antagonistic, sets of habits, desires, loyalties. We have been, however, inclined to think of such conflicts as lying outside the individual—between social groups which, in some not altogether legitimate way, had entrapped the individual. For example, we have thought of war as a conflict between "nations." And we have thought of these "nations" as almost impersonal entities; or if we have personified them, we have envisaged them as "kings" or "governments," or something remote; and we have thought of "people" as having been entrapped, caught in the quarrel in some not altogether legitimate way. We have never clearly seen that all these quarrelings of "groups" (including war, itself) are rooted back in the inner life of the member of the group, whether he knows it or not: the desires that gnaw at his liver are desires born of memberships in conflicting groups; the loyalties that wage war within him are loyalties that express his more or less conscious memberships in antagonistic groups. And the social group to which he belongs could not play pawns with him, as they do, were it not for the fact that he is totally confused by these conflicting desires and loyalties, has no adequate understanding as to where his own true life is localized, knows no way of finding out where his ultimate loyalties (if he has any) are likely to find their attachments.

THESE confusions of desire and allegiance within the individual are the inevitable result of our over-complicated group developments, today. Each group, in itself, might represent an increment of value to the primitively undeveloped personality of the member. Going the round of many groups he might make, more or less, the round of humanity, broadening his experience, his perspectives and his sympathies until he was by way of becoming a real human being. This would happen if these groups were able to maintain their own integral relationships to the human whole. They do not; mayhap, they cannot. However that may be, each such group tends to seize upon its own private fragment of humanity, and forgetting the whole, to make that fragment a substitute for the whole. The fragment becomes more important than the whole: the group, the institution becomes more important than the community!

Hence, one who joins a group seeking for an additional bit of human experience or understanding to complete so far his own humanness, finds not what he seeks, as a rule; he finds, instead, a sort of monstrosity: a fragment elevated to the position of the whole. As if some strange tribe of primitive people should conclude that the foot is the most important member of the body, and should set up a foot as the object of its worship; while other tribes, equally fatuous, should set up, and worship, other members of the body: a stranger making the round of these groups might also make the round of the human body, and worship in turn each one of his members, and come out at the end confused, outraged, disillusioned. This is, in some measure, what our group life and membership is doing to us today: it leads us not to humanity and the sense of the whole—the community of life; it leads us to over-emphasis upon fragments, to confusion, to disillusionment.

IS there then no way out of these confusions? Group conflicts stir us with primitive emotions, and we are still further confused. Must we, in order to escape these confusions, avoid group memberships, with their attendant conflicts and disturbing emotions? Must we return to the primitive world, with its one or a very few groups, and find in the old narrowness of life the defense that we need against the confusions of today? In order to find integrity of life must we give up variety, richness, breadth of outlook?

Perhaps we are foolish to want integrity over and above our variety and richness of experience. Perhaps we should be willing to lose our souls, if so be we gain the world of experiences. Perhaps souls are antiquated possessions.

Still there is a way out—forward through our confusions; or at least there might be if we were sure that such a result were worth the effort. It is not an existent way—at least not for many. It will never be an easy way: it is eloquent of adventure.

That way has two turnings, one for the individual, the other for the race. For the individual, it means a turning away from habits and customs and the defeats of emotion toward intelligence and a program of living wrought of thoughtfulness. For the race, it means going forward from primitive levels of living, from primitive antagonisms, intolerances and provincialisms to the achievement of a real community of life. Intelligence in the individual, community of life for the race: and these two are one! Individual intelligence, in order to exist at all, must move toward the organization of community of life for the race; and a community of life can come into being only to the extent that individuals achieve a higher level of intelligence.

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Our Social Institutions
A Course for High Schools

XV. Understanding Men

What is the use of all our knowledge? Why should we spend years accumulating information unless it be that thereby we increase our understanding of the world in which we live and especially our understanding of our fellow men, both as individuals and as members of groups and communities? The older humanistic culture held this to be the objective of education. The modern sciences hold this to be at least one of the aims of learning. Should the social sciences fall behind in this respect? Should not the social sciences help their devotees to a clearer comprehension of life and the world, of manners, customs, governments?

But the human race has tried for thousands of years to force all human interests and characteristics within the narrow range of the human intellect. Scholars work with their intellects: hence, they think it quite natural that everything should be reduced to an intellectual formula. But modern psychology refuses to follow those old leads. Modern psychology is finding deep-buried strata in men—strata deeper than the intellect: strata of old, instinctive nature; strata of habit and custom and institutions; strata of emotional disturbances—deep-buried strata, under the surface of life, above which the "intellect" rises now and again like a mountain peak above the plains. Man's nature is like the earth: layer upon layer, the strata lie under the surface as we ordinarily perceive it. One can easily learn the surface and the mountain-peaks: but these do not explain the subterranean fires that occasionally break through—to devastate the land. If one would know men, he must dig beneath the surface into the geological ages of man's hidden being.

1. The Buried Life of Humanity

What are instincts? Do human beings have instincts? Do these human instincts differ from those of animals? What is supposed to have been the origin of instincts? What are the uses of instincts? How does an instinct work in a human being? Are instincts desirable possessions? Could human beings live as effectively without them?

What is meant by adaptation to environment? Do human beings adapt themselves to their environments? How do they do this? How does an adapted person differ from one who is not adapted? Is adaptation a conscious process, or is it something that takes place unconsciously? Do instincts have any share in processes of adaptation?

What is an institution? Where do institutions exist? Can a person "join" an institution? What would that mean? How does one who "belongs to an institution" differ from one who does not belong? Has something taken place on the inside of him? Do his instincts have any share in this process of joining. How does joining an institution differ from becoming adapted to an environment?

What is a habit? Where do habits exist: on the outside of individuals, or on the inside? How does a habit differ from an adaptation? Is there any connection between habits and instincts? Does joining an institution make any difference in one's habits? What is a custom? Is "going to church" a custom? Is a church a custom? How do habits and customs differ?

How much of all these: instincts, adaptations, institutions, habits and customs, is under the surface of our lives? How much is conscious, intelligent, understood by us?

References:

James H. Tufts, The Real Business of Living. Henry Holt.

The books mentioned on this page may be obtained through The Survey Book Department.

Questions on Current Issues

Should It Now Be Told?

The Philosophy of Lying is a subject which has never been fully explored, much to the loss of the race. Plato did, indeed, go into the matter, somewhat, in various places, but especially in The Laws. One quotation will show the general tenor of his reasoning and it will demonstrate the need of further research. "Truth," says Plato, "truth should be highly valued . . . a lie is useless to the gods, and useful only as a medicine to men . . . the use of such medicines should be restricted to physicians; private individuals have no business with them . . . Then if any one at all is to have the privilege of lying, the rulers of the state should be the persons; and they in their dealings, either with enemies or with their own citizens, may be allowed to lie for the public good . . . If then the ruler catches anybody besides himself lying in the state . . . he will punish him for introducing a practice which is subversive and destructive . . ." We are not to assume that Plato has here exhausted the subject; hence, we may not follow him literally in his conclusions. None the less, we may follow him this far, at least: lying is a useful medicine; but who are the physicians who shall be permitted to administer this medicine? Shall we all turn physician for this purpose and qualify as practitioners? Shall we set up a recognized profession of lying, with licensed members of the profession? Or shall we follow Plato more literally and decide that all lying shall be concentrated in the prerogatives of the public officials? Dr. Cabot has raised this question with reference to social work and social workers; but there seems to be no good reason why the matter should be allowed to end there:

1. How Much Lying Goes on Today?

The world has become very complicated, and important individuals are enmeshed in many relationships and activities, which involve them often in conflicts and contradictions: Under such circumstances, can lying always be avoided? Is it always avoided? Do politicians tell the truth? Do teachers always tell the truth? Do preachers? Is a business man's word really as good as his bond? Does an "oath" mean anything today? Do witnesses under oath tell the truth? Recently published statistics indicate that about 60 per cent of the school children of America "cheat, lie and steal" whenever the chance offers. Would this figure also fit the adults of our population? Is it too low? Too high?

2. How Much Lying is Needed?

The above questions (under 1.) have little to do with the subject of "lying as medicine." In addition to this casual lying, or lying for profit, how much lying is done by careful intention, for some prophylactic purpose? To what extent do teachers lie to their pupils: about historical characters? About present social conditions? To what extent do ministers lie to their congregations about doctrines? Do politicians ever lie to their constituents? Do physicians ever lie to their patients? How much of this lying is needed? How much of it produces results? Are we to assume that all physicians, teachers, politicians and public officials do lie upon occasion? When do they tell the truth? Is there any escape from this lying? Do we—the public—want the truth? For example, in the present investigations in Washington are the witnesses expected to tell the truth? Do the investigators want the truth? Does the public want the facts? What would we do with the facts if we should get them?

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pp. 67, 102.

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COMMUNICATIONS

Hospital Patients and Alcoholism

To THE EDITOR: In The Survey of October 15, in an article entitled A Tip to Commissioners, Dr. Haven Emerson congratulates the city on the great decrease in the ratio of public hospital patients to population from the year 1917 to the year 1922. He does not state the estimate of population in 1917 on which his ratio is based, but it is not necessary to know the exact figures, for it is a fact that the decrease in patients in the five year period was great, and no doubt the ratio to population was reduced fully as much as claimed. In 1922, despite the increase in population there were actually 7881 fewer discharges from hospitals of the Department of Public Welfare than in 1917.

Taken by itself this sounds very encouraging. Dr. Emerson attributes it to the effects of prohibition, and goes on to calculate the amount of money saved the city in hospital bills as being many times the $25,000 appropriation asked by Commissioner Enright of the Police Department for the enforcing of prohibition in the coming year.

But as the old fable says "Figures are not always facts," and unfortunately this is an instance where isolated figures do not give a true picture of actual conditions. So far as they are used in an effort to reach the truth about alcoholism they are so misleading as to call for the rest of the figures, so that those interested in the subject may be able to judge for themselves.

Considerable confusion has existed in the minds of investigators over the city's figures on alcoholism, especially those reported by hospitals. Sometimes admissions were used, sometimes discharges; sometimes one group of institutions was quoted, sometimes another, and the figures, while approximate, were always sufficiently different to place the conclusions in doubt.

With a desire to relieve this bewilderment, and also to shed as much light as possible on a subject of general interest, the Department of Public Welfare has prepared the following table which shows public hospital figures on a uniform basis of discharge. All except its own are taken from annual reports, some of which are not yet in print, and care has been taken to avoid duplication and get as close to the facts as possible.

It will be seen from the tables that in both hospital departments of the city the actual low water mark in discharges was reached in 1919 and 1920. The latter year showed in comparison with 1917 a combined decrease of 20,341 in patients of all types.

After 1920 discharges commenced to amount. Adding the figures of the two departments together we see an increase of 9,764 in 1921, and in 1922 an increase of 11,516 over the low of 1920, which means that 1922, while still 8,825 behind the high of 1917 had climbed back much more than half the total drop of 20,341.

In the first ten months of 1923 discharges from hospitals of the Department of Public Welfare were 38,045. At the average rate of discharges the year's total will be about 45,500, the highest figure in ten years, eclipsing even 1917.

If, as one reasonably supposes, public hospital figures are an indication of public health, this movement must mean either that the better health in 1919 and 1920 of those ordinarily coming to city hospitals was not based on any permanent improvement in conditions, or else that public health is being adversely affected by some recent cause which became suddenly apparent in 1921 and is gaining in force.

It is equally unfortunate that friends of prohibition should select alcoholism statistics of 1922 alone for comparison with those of 1917, since a far truer idea may be had by comparing both those years with the years which intervene.

In 1918, 1919, 1920 and 1921 all the hopsitals showed a great falling off of alcoholics, although in the Department of Public Welfare, where the figures are carefully watched, there was an almost continuous slight upward trend. But in 1922, the very year cited as so satisfactory for prohibition, the ratio of alcoholics to total discharges from the combined hospitals jumped from 38 to 62 per 1000.

If there is any cause for rejoicing in this showing it is not for prohibitionists.

Again, in 1923, up to October 31, the Public Welfare Hospitals have discharged 2,078 alcoholics out of a total 38,045 patients. This is a ratio of 54 per 1,000 for us against 51 last year. Figures from the Department of Bellevue and Allied and the Police Department are not available at present.

To sum up:—whether calculations be based on population of the city or of the city's hospitals, the picture of a falling line from 1917 to 1922 is only half the truth. The picture underneath is the one that calls for attention, not only from prohibitionists, but from all those whose various opinions and attitudes on the subject are the screen behind which lawbreakers are working with safety and profit. Another thing that speaks from these city figures is that the majority of the people represented are more sinned against than sinning. They are not the primary offenders, and to that extent are like the scapegoats of old, whose lot was to be driven into the wilderness carrying the sins of the tribe on their shoulders.

MARGARET D. JACKSON
Medical Statistician, Department of Public Welfare
City of New York

CITY OF NEW YORK
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC WELFARE

TABLE A.
ALCOHOLISM IN POLICE COURTS, CITY HOSPITALS & PRISONS

ALCOHOLICS DISCHARGED	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	Jan. 1st Oct. 31st 1923
Dept. Public Welfare Hospitals	2150	1835	2638	2302	1145	965	1024	1168	1924	2078
Dept. Bellevue & Allied Hospitals	7416	6591	8168	6328	2596	2575	2301	2694	4502	
Police Department Arrests	23041	22377	19453	16311	8795	7028	7804	8169	11402	
Total Alcoholism	32607	30803	30259	24941	12536	10568	11129	12031	17828	
Department of Corrections (prisons)	Figures are included in those of the Police Department									

TABLE B

TOTAL HOSPITAL DISCHARGED	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923
Dept. Public Welf. Hosp.	41825	43832	43787	45209	41436	33921	33745	37816	37328	38045
Dept Bellevue & All. Hosp.	61461	64504	65871	67269	64827	58497	58392	64085	66325	
Total Hosp. Discharged	103286	108336	109658	112478	106263	92418	92137	101901	103653	

TABLE C

ALCOHOLISM PER 1000 DISCHARGED	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923
Dept. Public Welfare Hospitals	51	41	60	51	27	28	33	30	51	54
Dept. Bellevue & Allied Hospitals	120	102	124	94	40	44	39	42	67	

IT IS REGRETTED that the absence of the health editor of The Survey for a month on a trip to Germany should have delayed the publication of the interesting and more extended analysis of total hospital discharges and alcoholic patients in the city hospitals herewith presented by Commissioner Coler's medical statistician, Mrs. Margaret D. Jackson (received early in December). The figures presented offer a valuable historical review of our experience with disease, rarely used as an index of social and economic conditions.

It would seem that the record of the police department's arrests given in Table A is of but little if any significance considering the uneven character of police policy and performance since 1918. Total alcoholism can hardly be

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considered as truly expressed by a total for each year which includes so variable an element as police department arrests.

While from a hospital point of view annual comparisons of disease incidence and total sickness cared for may properly be expressed in terms of hospital discharges, these are misleading without an accompanying statement of the population for each year as of July 1st or the ratio of all discharges or of discharges for a particular disease to the population of the year. Of course the altogether accurate ratio would be that of the patients discharged to the population of that age and sex in the community.

Lacking the information from the hospitals for the calculating of such ratio on age and sex group basis we take the liberty of adding a table (Table D) showing the ratio of total discharges for alcoholism from the hospitals of the Department of Public Welfare and Bellevue and Allied Hospitals for each 1,000 of the city's population in each year 1914-23. This table presents the facts as offered by the medical statistician's office with the added data of population, from which it will be seen as before that much gain has accrued to the city from prohibition even if enforcement and public support of the law have been pitifully inadequate and the bootleggers increasingly well organized.

TABLE D

Year	Population Estimated as of July 1st of each year	ALCOHOLIC PATIENTS DISCHARCHED Total	%	Public Welfare Hospitals	%	Bellevue & Allied Hosp.	%	Police Department Arrests	%
1914	5,136,706	9,566	.18%	2,150	.04%	7,416	.14%	23,041	.44%
1915	5,224,585	8,426	.15%	1,835	.03%	6,591	.12%	22,377	.43%
1916	5.312,464	10,806	.20%	2,638	.04%	8,168	.16%	19,453	.37%
1917	5,400,343	8,630	.16%	2,302	.04%	6,328	.12%	16,311	.30%
1918	5,488,222	3,741	.07%	1,145	.02%	2,596	.05%	8,795	.16%
1919	5,576,101	3,540	.06%	965	.01%	2,575	.05%	7,028	.13%
1920	5,620,048	3,325	.06%	1,024	.02%	2,301	.04%	7,804	.14%
1921	5,751,859	3,862	.07%	1,168	.02%	2,694	.05%	8,169	.14%
1922	5,849,738	6,426	.11%	1,924	.03%	4,502	.08%	11,402	.19%

HAVEN EMERSON, M.D.

Veracity in Social Work

(*Continued from page* 68)

asks the agent to visit as a friend and not to mention her connection with an organization. There are volunteer visitors in my district whose contact with their families covers many years, and who have never yet let their families know that they have any connection with our society, and who rather boast that they have visited all these years for us, helping the family over many crises, without a suspicion on its part as to the source from which this friendship has come. If one feels that he would be handicapped by saying from what agency he came, he should discontinue his contact with that agency. Always, I think, a worker from an organization should give his name and the name of his agency and as far as possible those referring should understand that this is our practice.

On the other hand Mr. Almy, in the letter already referred to, takes the other side:

I disagree with the paper also where it says that "if one feels that he would be handicapped by saying from what agency he came, he should discontnue his contact with that agency." Of course it is always desirable to be open, and usually, I think, expedient; but surely sometimes the first contact can be without special mention of the agency, especially if this has been requested.

From my point of view, the improvement, the greater truthfulness in this matter of the first visit, is due to the better understanding of social agencies. Sometimes this better understanding is associated with a change of name; for example, Associated Charities to Family Welfare Society. The latter name involves less explanation and less frequent disapproval on the part of the client, in case he happens to be not only poor, but proud. Yet I remember not many years ago the head of an important Boston social agency teaching her workers to make their early visits as if they had happened in on the client as a neighbor and with no explanation whatever of their business or of the agency which they represented. In this, as in all the matters under discussion in this paper, the practice to which I object will hardly stand the test of putting ourselves in the other person's place. Will any one of us tolerate a person's happening in as if he were a neighbor and then going off to write down and discuss in an office the information obtained at such a visit? Should we not consider ourselves deceived and affronted? If so, what right have we to treat any other human being as we would not stand being treated ourselves?

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This brings me to the question of records and their supposedly confidential nature. Some social workers do not take full records in the presence of the client but write them up as soon as possible afterwards. In some cases doubtless this involves no misunderstanding. In other cases, I am convinced that it does mislead the client. He is tacitly led to suppose that what he has told the worker will not be made a matter of permanent record and will not be known to any one else. He supposes the whole transaction to be confidential. Now when we let him suppose this, we are, as I see it, substantially deceiving him and it is for that reason that I believe any social worker interviewing her client should rather ostentatiously take out record sheet, pen and ink and make the record so that the client can have no possible doubt of its existence. Such a procedure suggests to the client—without necessitating a long and complicated explanation—that the record will be shown, not to any random individual but to some other, perhaps many other persons whom it is necessary to consult *for the client's own welfare.* It is like a medical record which, so far as I see the whole matter, is strictly parallel. Medical records are not to be shown to the general public nor to any one not concerned in attempting to ameliorate the patient's situation. But, on the other hand, they represent communications which are by no means confidential. They are there as a basis for consultation with others concerned in the patient's welfare. They are permanent and may be consulted later by those who have a right. The knowledge of this gives the patient the opportunity to withhold information if he so chooses and doesn't draw him into making statements which he never would have made had he known they were to be a matter of permanent record.

Just what are the lines of distinction between those who may properly see a record and those who may not is a point difficult to decide. But at any rate, we should do all we can to prevent our clients from receiving the impression that only the person with whom he talks as he tells his story is to be conversant with his affairs.

In this connection the district conferences which form part of the organization of many charitable societies and family welfare societies are difficult to defend in case we believe in entire truthfulness with our clients. When a client has told us his private affairs and when later this case is talked over in district conferences, might not any one of us, as a member of that conference, be disconcerted if the client should suddenly appear at the door of the conference room? Do we never say anything which we should object to having him hear? Are we saying nothing contrary to his understanding of our purpose in talking with him when first he gave us his history? Would one of us confide to any one else his private affairs if he knew they were to be talked over in such a conference? I think not. Why should not a client be asked to be present at these conferences? At the Boston Psychopathic Hospital in the 12 o'clock conferences held by the members of the staff—often with the cooperation of the social workers and others directly concerned in the welfare of the patient—the patient himself is often present. Could there be a more severe test of the method of frankness than this custom of the Boston Psychopathic Hospital exemplifies? Take in contrast the customs of some Travelers' Aid Societies, meeting runaway girls at the railway station and following up the first interview by prompt telephone or telegraph message to their parents. I am supposing that these girls have broken no law. Are we not receiving their confidence prepared to carry out a kindly act which immediately breaks that confidence? Is it not clear that the girl never would have told us her home address had she known that we were immediately going to communicate with her parents? She trusts and is betrayed.

In this—as in many other cases—we are blinded by the supposedly convincing value of the service we render through this violation of confidence. Through it the runaway girl is restored to her home. What more could one ask? The answer seems to me to be that while we have effected by these methods an obvious temporary success, we have done nothing certain to benefit the character of the individual out of whose weakness the incident of the runaway has sprung. What is to prevent her doing it again? Have we not taught her to deceive by the

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most effective of all methods—example? In this, as in most all cases known to me, the use of deception in dealing with our clients seem to arise from a short-sighted view of the nature of success in social work. An immediate good is achieved at the expense of a greater, though less obvious, evil. So it is with most deceptions.

I mention last the most debatable of the deceptions practiced by social workers on their clients, the use of the confidential exchange, without the client's knowledge. I am an enthusiastic believer in the use of the confidential exchange and have done all that I could to further its use by medical-social agencies. But this piece of machinery—like the district conferences—is one that I think the client has a right to know about before he becomes involved in it. I have heard many a client say afterwards, "If I had known all that they were going to do to me, I never would have gone near them." Much of the bitter resentment that I have heard expressed against charitable agencies has been due not to their methods themselves but to the secrecy of these methods, to the client's finding himself in for so much more than he ever suspected or would have permitted, had he known it in advance. The vast majority of our clients, I believe, would willingly consent to being registered at the confidential exchange if they were given the opportunity to consent. But can we be sure that they would assent? And without such assurance, do we not run the risk of doing that which they would regard as a violation of their confidence? I would here distinguish the process of merely inquiring at a confidential exchange whether such and such a person is there registered, without registering the name about which we then and there inquire. This I would distinguish from the process of registration itself. I hardly think that any client would be apt to feel himself deceived by our merely inquiring of a central registering agency whether or not he has already been registered there. But to put his name there with all the consequences which may follow from such an act, and without consulting him at all upon the point, seems to me quite unjustifiable on the grounds already mentioned—first, that it is an act which our client might forbid if he was aware of it, and, second, that most of us would not want to be treated in that way ourselves.

SO far I have spoken only of deception of clients by social workers. The deception of social agencies by each other is exemplified in letters of recommendation given to agents leaving one society for another and in records of clients transferred from one agency to another. Here it is the sin of omission with which I am concerned. What is said in such records or recommendations is often true enough. But what is omitted leaves a deceptive impression upon the agency that receives it. In such cases we are often acting upon the kindest motives. We want to forward the career, to help on the life of some one who is being transferred to another agency. We do not want to prejudice that agency against the person at the start. We want to give him a fair chance to make good in a new environment. But involved with this excellent intentions are others less creditable. We are passing on a difficult problem to some one else. We are sometimes "passing the buck," because we are leaving unsaid certain truths which are essential to an accurate and helpful understanding of things as they are in the character of the persons concerned. Often we shield ourselves behind the thought that we have said nothing untrue. But the lies told by silence are often the most serious. Stevenson's indignant words "A man may have sat in a room for hours and not opened his teeth, and yet come out of that room a disloyal friend or a vile calumniator" are as true as ever. In such cases not to tell the truth as we know it is to tell a lie.

Of course this is not always the case. Reserve is often compatible with perfect veracity. Not every acquaintance of ours needs to be buttonholed when we meet him on the street and told all we have thought or suspected about his character. He looks for nothing of the kind. He is not deceived in the least when we pass him by with a nod. But when we write to another agency a letter recommending a client or a worker and leave out information essential to the agency's understanding of his character, we are telling a straight lie, as I see it. In many such cases we are withheld from truthfulness by the

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Before me, a Commissioner of Deeds, in and for the State and county aforesaid, personally appeared Arthur Kellogg, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the business manager of The Survey, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management (and if a daily paper, the circulation), etc., of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, embodied in section 443, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse of this form, to wit:

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[Signed] ARTHUR KELLOGG,
Business Manager.

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[Seal] MARTHA HOHMANN,
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tact that we have been asked by the person concerned not for a full character description but for a recommendation. Shall we not be deceiving *him,* then, if we give more than he asked for? Certainly, I should say, unless he knows exactly what we are doing. And to be sure of this we should always show him the letter which we propose to send, particularly if it contains passages not altogether favorable to him. He has a right to know this and to convince you, if he can, that you have not done him justice.

TRUTHFULNESS to the general public is violated by many of our annual reports and by some of the other methods used for obtaining financial support. To make our annual reports vivid and convincing, we are in the habit of introducing "illustrative cases." If these are properly disguised so as to make recognition overwhelmingly improbable, they need involve no disloyalty to the client. But to the general public do they give a fair impression? Is not the reader led to suppose that these are *samples* of our work, that we usually —or at any rate often—obtain such success as these cases show? Do we make a fair exhibit of our failures? I know very few annual reports which when read with these questions in our minds and with the knowledge of the work from which these cases have been selected, would still appear truthful.

Do most annual reports appealing for money to help sick children, or unmarried mothers, make it clear how large a proportion of the money goes (as of course it should) not to the mothers or to the children but to the salaries of those who care for them?

Another case in which we attempt to deceive the general public (often, I think, successfully) is where we fall in with the wish of an unmarried mother that she be called "Mrs." when we know that she is in fact "Miss." Of course it is foolish to attempt to make up her mind for her. She must settle with her own conscience what she does in this matter and whether she is to start life with her young baby by founding all their human relations upon a lie. The question for us is whether we shall actively aid her in deceiving the public, whether we shall in the presence of a third party call her "Mrs." or write her letters so addressed. We may perfectly well and truthfully, so far as I see, decide to keep ourselves out of the whole matter (if we can) and leave her to settle her moral problems with herself and with the public. But so far as we take any part at all we are bound to deal fairly with the public and not actively to assist in foisting a lie upon it. There is nothing illegal about it, so far as I can find out, but it is making ourselves participators, not in the crime but in immorality. On this last point I am well aware that there is room for abundant difference of opinion and I hope to make it clear that I do not mean that we should "butt in" on any such situation that may in any way become known to us, but only that any dealings which are forced upon us or any relationships we see reason to assume should be based upon entire truth and not falsehood, on our part.

The beliefs that I have expressed in this paper have been forced upon me by the experience of the harm of acting otherwise. I mean, first, the harm done by my own lies and, second, by those conscientiously but mistakenly told by social workers. I care very much for the good fame of social work. I want to be able to defend social workers from all unjust attacks. But the bitterest and most irresistible attacks that I have ever known have been those issuing from a hatred of the deceptions practiced upon the poor, upon ignorant and unfortunate clients by social workers, who are sometimes in a hurry—the same sort of hurry that makes the American people want to get rich quick. Results are what we are after, and we do not always stop to analyse the right or wrong of the means we use. Thereby we bring all social work and social workers into disrepute. Success indeed we win through deception, but it is a cheap and temporary success and not worthy of the high endeavor to which the profession of social work is pledged.

So let us keep our promises, those spoken and those implied, to our clients, to each other and to the public. Whoever keeps all such promises can never lie. Whoever lies is breaking a promise, tacit or explicit.

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(*Continued from page 108*)

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M. W. H.

THE POWER OF AN ENDLESS LIFE, *by Henry Hallam Saunderson. Century Co. 114 pp. Price $1.25 postpaid of The Survey.*

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CONSTRUCTIVE CONSCIOUS CONTROL OF THE INDIVIDUAL, *by F. Matthias Alexander. E. P. Dutton & Co. 317 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

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TOMORROW, *by John Schilling. The Hoosier Press, Fort Wayne, Ind. 179 pp.*

ENGLISH FOR IMMEDIATE USE, *by Frederick H. Law. Charles Scribner's Sons. 492 pp. Price $1.60 postpaid of The Survey.*

ADDRESSES AND PROCEEDINGS OF THE SIXTY-FIRST ANNUAL MEETING OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. *National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C. 1068 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

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M. R.

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M. R.

RURAL TEXAS, *by William Bennett Bizzell. Macmillan Co. 477 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

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G. S.

SOME ASPECTS OF ITALIAN IMMIGRATION TO THE UNITED STATES, *by Antonio Stella, M.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons 125 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

DR. STELLA marshals statistical evidence from official American sources to correct some of the grosser prejudices still current in Nordic circles against the Italian immigrant, and adds a vigorous criticism of the Laughlin report (see The Survey, December 15, 1923, p. 309). As to a positive policy, he is evidently in sympathy with the desire of the Italian Emigration Commission to secure the regulated admission of Italian workers in response to the temporary or seasonal needs of the American labor market.

G. S.

JOHN CITIZEN'S JOB, *by Henry H. Curran. Charles Scribner's Sons 253 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

HOUSING PROBLEMS IN AMERICA, *Proceedings of the ninth National Conference on Housing, Philadelphia, December, 1923. National Housing Association, 105 East 22nd St., New York, N. Y.*

THE CUSTOMS SERVICE, *Service Monograph of the U. S. Government, No. 33, by Laurence F. Schmeckebier. The Johns Hopkins Press. 191 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE BUREAU OF IMMIGRATION, *Service Monograph of the U. S Government, No. 30, by Darrell H. Smith and H. Guy Herring.*

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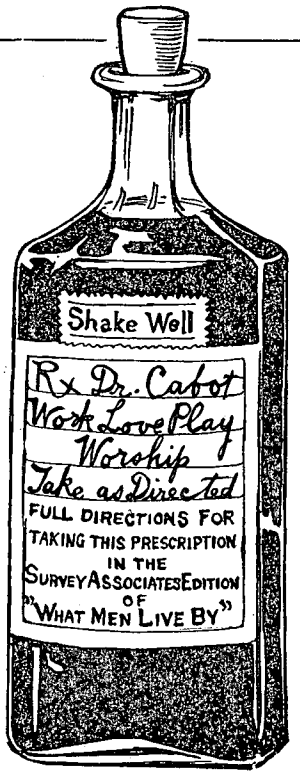

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